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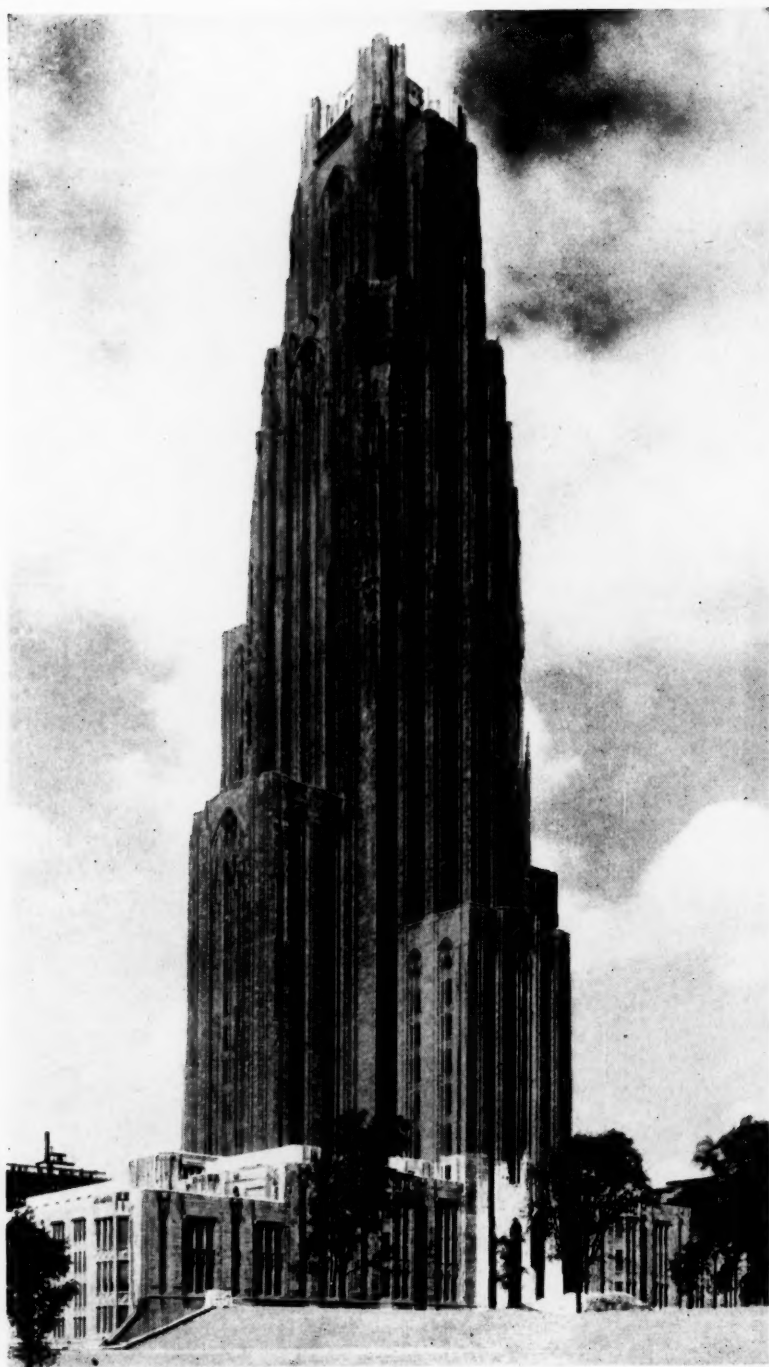
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CATHEDRAL OF LEARNING

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Education in the U. S. S. R.

WILLIAM S. SAVRAN

Citizens of the U. S. S. R. have the right to education. This right is ensured because: compulsory elementary education is universal; education, including higher (university) education, is free of charge; there is a system of state scholarships for the overwhelming majority of students in the higher schools; instruction in schools is conducted in the native language; there is organized free vocational, technical and agronomic training for the toilers in the factories, state farms, machine and tractor stations, and collective farms.²

It is the aim of this article to present an objective picture of present day education in the U. S. S. R. The findings presented are based on Soviet educational literature including translations from Russian. The reader must bear in mind that the findings in this article are by no means final. Life in the U. S. S. R. is dynamic and fluid. Changes have and must take place from time to time. The basic principle, however, is clear. The works of Marx, Engels, Lenin, and Stalin have created the doctrines of Marx-Leninism, which covers the divers phenomena in life, nature and society, and a mere application of these basic principles to problems of education creates a firm theoretical foundation for the practical work of the educators.

NOTE: This material is based upon original translations from Russian documents, journals, and publications. Because of the numerous quotations and the frequent use of different sources in the same paragraph, the periodicals and source material are listed at the end of the article.

The translations are authentic and unabridged. They do not necessarily present the point of view of the editor or writer, neither are they organized with that intent.

Mr. Savran, who is on the faculty of the Shoemaker Junior High School in Philadelphia, has spent considerable time in Russia as a student and in the study of education in the U. S. S. R.—The Editor.

Education in the Tzarist Russia was designed for the benefit of the aristocracy only. The Tzar's Minister of Education, Shishkov, unhesitatingly stated: "Education is beneficial only when given in small doses." Delianov, another Minister of Education under the Tzar, in his famous Circular on Education, said: "The children of cooks, chauffeurs, butlers, small tradesmen, etc., with the exception of the most gifted ones, would feel themselves ill at ease and out of place in these new environments (the higher schools) to which they do not belong."⁶

UNIFICATION UNDER THE STATE

Under Tzarism there was no unified educational system; the schools belonged to scores of the most varied governmental departments, among which the Church played an enormous role; the instruction was adapted to the requirements of the Tzarist regime, and was imbued with orthodoxy, worship of the autocracy, and Chauvinism. Not more than half of the children of school age attended elementary school. Neither workers nor peasants were to be seen within the walls of the secondary or higher educational institutions. Statistics show that in 1912 there were in Russia 77,000 churches and monasteries, and less than 100,000 schools.⁵

In Tzarist Russia, 7.8 million children attended elementary and secondary schools while 124,000 students were enrolled in higher schools. Today in the Soviet Union about 26.5 million children are studying in the elementary and secondary schools, while higher schools boast one-half million students. There are more than 600 higher schools now; before the revolution there were but 90. In addition to the establishment of a host of nurseries, kindergartens and other pre-school institutions, 38,000 primary and junior high schools, and 2,450 high schools have been opened since the Revolution. During the period of the first Five-Year Plan alone 35,000 schools, 2,000 factory schools, 1,000 workers' faculties, 2,500 technicums, 500 universities, and 400 research institutes, were established.¹

This increase in the number of new schools has not been slackened. Last year (1935) the Council of Peoples Commissars of the U. S. S. R., and the Central Committee of the All-Union Communist Party called attention to the enlarged school building plans and to the abolition of shifts in the schools.

The second Five-Year Plan provides for an increase of pupils in

the seven-year schools from 21.7 to 28.8 million, a result of the introduction of universal education in these schools. This year 3 million children in the Russian Soviet Federated Socialistic Republic started to school for the first time.⁵

Naturally this increase in the number of schools and pupils calls for an increase in the teaching staffs. According to the Second Five-Year Plan, there is to be an increase in the number of teachers in the general educational school from 628,000 to 834,000.

Great attention has also been devoted to the problem of textbooks. The Government and Party recently passed decisions governing the publication and sale of textbooks and school supplies. The plan for publication of text books in 1935 calls for 52 million for the entire Union and 37 million for the R. S. F. S. R. People in such small areas as the Mari-Gorni and Mari-Lugovi of the Mari-Autonomous Region (along the Volga near the Chuvash Armenian Soviet Socialistic Republic) and the Nets and Chuckchi of the Far North, are given textbooks in their native languages. All the peoples of the Soviet Union are given instruction in their native tongue. At the present textbooks are printed in eighty-two languages.⁶

The growth reflected in the foregoing facts and figures is also common to nurseries, kindergartens and children's playgrounds. The Second Five-Year Plan makes provision for an increase in the number of children in such institutions from 5.2 million in 1932, to 16 million in 1937. Clubs and houses of culture are to expand from 49,300 to 76,900 while libraries are to increase from 15,000 to 25,000 with a 300% increase in the number of books.⁶

With the advance of mass education, the educational limits had to be extended. The working masses had to be given the opportunity to obtain a complete education from the elementary school up to the university. This problem was particularly difficult in districts inhabited by the national minorities, where no schools existed.

It was necessary first of all to work out a system of public education corresponding to the new conditions of the Soviet state. Work was started immediately on creating a unified educational system, and on establishing a corresponding network of schools in which the children of all workers in town or country might study free of charge. At first the educational systems in the different republics (such as the R. S. F. S. R., Ukraine, White Russia) differed slightly from one another. Today, however, there is a single system for the whole of the U. S. S. R.

EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY

The enormous volume of practical work carried on in the Soviet Union in the sphere of education would be impossible were it not based upon a definite theory. The recognition of a need for a scientific approach to all phenomena in nature and society is characteristic of the U. S. S. R.

Soviet educators have devoted much time and attention to problems of pedagogical theory, that is, the problems of education and upbringing. The successes in working out a well-balanced theory of pedagogy, however, lag behind the technical achievements. Problems still exist which have not been elaborated with the necessary detail and precision. The fundamental principles, as previously stated, are based upon the doctrine of Marx-Leninism, and the mere application of these principles to problems of education creates a firm theoretical foundation for the practical work of the educator.

A scientific system of pedagogy is impossible without a perfectly clear and precise definition of the aims of education and upbringing. This basic theory evolves from the answer to the question, "What sort of man must we educate?" We must educate a man who does not know the contradistinction between the physical and mental labor which distinguishes the capitalistic society from the communistic order. We must educate a man to the communistic outlook.

"We are thoroughly convinced that the development of education and the struggle for Communism and Socialism go hand in hand. The more educated, developed, and cultured, our people are, the more successful will be our struggle for Socialism and Communism. One of Lenin's basic bequests to us was to develop culture and knowledge, to push forward the Cultural revolution. Lenin emphasized that it is impossible to win with an uncultured, an illiterate people. The broadest development of education and culture, therefore, is in our class interests."¹²

The different branches of the Soviet educational system are too numerous and varied to discuss thoroughly in this article, and we shall limit the discussion mainly to school education. The two principle questions of the Soviet schools are: (a) what should be studied? and (b) how should it be studied?

The subject matter for study must meet the following requirements:

1. It must be scientific
2. It must be systematic

3. It must develop a Marx-Leninist class outlook
4. It must in all its complexity correspond to the mental powers of a child.

The scientific nature of subjects taught in the schools is determined by their absolute precision and correspondence with actual facts. In other words, teaching must be strictly materialistic; it must at the same time be strongly opposed to all outlooks distorting the facts. On the other hand, facts must be presented in their movement and their development, in their birth and destruction, in their life contradictions—they must be presented dialectically. Dialectical materialism, therefore, is the basis of a scientific presentation in the Soviet school.⁸

While stating facts with absolute precision and with no distortions, the Soviet schools at the same time approach these facts from the standpoint of the success of struggle for Socialism. The Soviet educator strives to see the facts as they are, he seeks to utilize these facts for the success of this struggle. Such is his objectivity and such is his partisanship in treating the question of the subject matter taught.¹¹

The demand for a systematic presentation of subject matter is of the most vital importance. The Soviet demand for such a presentation rejects the diffused and confused attack on "system" represented in the educational theory advanced by "progressive" currents of Western European and American pedagogy.

A systematic presentation from the Soviet point of view, is the most economical, the quickest, and truest method of assimilating content. "While struggling for the highest culture in the world, for the best specialists in all fields, we cannot dissipate our time and energies on educational activity which, although in a certain sense is "interesting" to the child, nevertheless, remains uncoordinated with the present and future social needs of all our children," says A. P. Pinkevich.⁷

"Although, in the last analysis, the character of our teaching corresponds to the ultimate aim of our society—an understanding of the Communist and Socialist revolutionary movement—we must not lose sight of the fact that teaching and subject matter must be directed towards labor, towards practical work, towards the exclusion of abstract schemes. The content of our teaching must have—and rightly so—the closest possible relation to labor and to human practice."⁷

"One of the most important demands placed upon the character of teaching is that it must correspond to the nature of the child. If our "leftists," anxious to make the subject matter taught correspond to the development of the child, committed a number of blunders, it is also possible to commit quite as many mistakes by presenting the child with material which is entirely inaccessible to its mental development. We erred a good deal on this side, too, when we offered kindergarten children and pupils of the first grades difficult political material."

A careful study of the psychology and physiology of the child—a pedological study—is most essential to bring about that combination of correct organization, integration and presentation of classroom material for various age groups that plays such a vital role in scientific teaching. With this aim in the foreground of Soviet pedagogy, it is quite natural that pedology—the science of the change of man with age—has become a factor in Soviet educational theory.¹⁰

FUNCTION OF THE SCHOOL

The program of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union defines the function of the school as follows:

In the period of the dictatorship of the proletariat, i.e., the period of preparation of the conditions required for the full realization of Communism, the school should be not merely the vehicle of the principles of Communism generally, but also a means of conveying the organizing, educating, ideological influence of the proletariat to the semi-proletarian and non-proletarian layers of the population, with the object of bringing up a generation capable of establishing communism.⁵

This shows that the program of the Party puts the chief stress on the political tasks of the school and that the Soviet school is a vehicle for the principles of Communism, i.e., the principles underlying the teachings of Marx and Lenin. It is the function of the school to convey the influence of the proletariat to the other layers of the working masses.

There is no hard and fast boundary line between school education and the education of the child, of the man, as a whole. The relationship between teaching and education, between teaching and rearing, presents an important question. From the Soviet point of view no contradiction exists between the two. It is obvious that any teaching involves elements of upbringing and rearing, that the latter is accompanied by elements of teaching and that the spheres of both

are mutually inclusive. So that in a discussion of teaching methods the Soviet educator proceeds from the premise that school education is both a component part of education in the widest, the most comprehensive sense, having as its foundation of teaching theory, fundamentally the same base and the identical objectives of education as a whole.

PEDAGOGICAL THEORY

The Soviet demands of teaching are as follows:

- (a) Teaching methods must be the most effective and economical from the point of view of expenditure of time.
- (b) Teaching must have a political character.
- (c) It must accustom the pupil to independent, active, disciplined work in a group, and
- (d) It must be based upon all the discoveries of modern psychology and pedagogy.

It is hardly necessary to explain the meaning of the first demand in detail. Soviet educators have taken all of the most valuable elements from world pedagogy. Recourse is made to practical and concrete studies by the children, to excursions and laboratory work. The conditions for organizing lessons efficiently are well thought out and much attention is paid to the quality of textbooks and school supplies. In short, importance is not only attached to all the minute factors of school life but never do Soviet systematic curriculums lose contact with actual life. We have likewise discussed the political tasks of the school.

The collective, disciplined, and active character of the entire system of education is in full accord with the educational aims of the Soviet school. A natural result of this treatment of education is the widespread development of Socialist competition. That conscious discipline, that development of morality and conduct which represents the educational aim of the Soviet school is secured by socialist competition. The teacher is responsible for the school, he directs and determines the general tone of the school. But the teacher achieves all this through the development of conscious discipline rather than through the discipline of fear, the discipline of the rod. Higher forms of education have been found in conscious discipline in socialist competition.

"After a summary of the basic principles of the Soviet system of education and upbringing, we feel that we may safely say that we

are well on the way toward the creation of a scientific theory of pedagogy. Our methods are well founded from the point of view of pedagogy and psychology. Each method, moreover, is estimated from the standpoint of its suitability to the peculiarities of a given age, and what is more significant, to the peculiarities of the individual child. For, while emphasizing the collective character of education, Soviet pedagogy has by no means lost sight of the individual, has by no means attempted to stifle individual development, and nowhere else in the world is individual development permitted as much scope and opportunity."¹⁰

POLYTECHNICAL EDUCATION*

Careful attention is also paid to polytechnical education. When Marx and Engels put forward this demand almost a century ago, they were actuated primarily by a belief in the necessity of abolishing the contradictions between mental and physical labor on the one hand, and a need for developing in the pupil an understanding of the entire range of man's productive activity.

These demands remain true today. "By linking up education with production, by developing workshops in schools we seek to create people who will be broadly developed, and will understand the productive activity of mankind while studying the main branches of production."¹² The same basic theory of Soviet education flows through all the graduated steps of the educational system, so that the philosophy underlying school methods is extended to and reflected in those schools for an understanding or productive activity.

The program of the Soviet Union demands that the school be a polytechnical one. By this is meant: "The introduction of free and compulsory general and polytechnical instruction (providing acquaintance in theory and practice with the main branches of production) for all children of both sexes."

In the resolution written by Marx in 1866 for the First Congress of the First International, he says:

"By education we mean three things: (1) Intellectual education. (2) Education of the body, similar to that given in school for gymnastics and military institutions. (3) Polytechnical instruction, which inculcates the general principles of all the processes of pro-

* The term "Polytechnical Education" belongs to Karl Marx.

duction and at the same time gives the child or youth practical training in the use of the simplest tools of all industries."

Marx saw the prerequisites necessary for organizing polytechnical instruction in the combination of instruction and gymnastics with physical labor and consequently of physical labor with instruction and gymnastics.

This demand stands in a most intimate relation to the basic demand which Marxism puts forward for the future Communist-Socialist system, namely that the division of labor which exists today be abolished.*

According to Engels, division of labor in its present form will completely disappear. Industry will run on the basis of a plan by society as a whole, in its own interest, and for this reason will require people of all-round development, capable of finding their bearings in every branch of industry. Division of labor, which has already been shattered by the machine, and which converts one person into a peasant, a second into a shoemaker, a third into an engineering worker, a fourth into a speculator, will completely disappear. The system of education will permit young people to gain acquaintance with industry as a whole, and so permit them to pass in turn from one branch of industry to another, according to the needs of society or their own inclinations. Education in this way will free them from the one-sidedness which the present division of labor imposes upon all. Society will thus enable its members to make universal application of their all-round and well-developed capacities.

Lenin put forward the same demands as Marx and Engels. Communism, he wrote, would "wage a struggle for the abolition of the division of labor and for the bringing up, education, and training of harmoniously developed human beings, capable of doing everything."¹⁰

HISTORY, GEOGRAPHY, AND LITERATURE IN A COMMUNISTIC STATE

In any school curriculum History, Geography and Literature lend themselves readily to the indoctrination of certain political ideas. For this reason I have chosen the subjects mentioned above to give the reader a bird's-eye view of the use which Soviet educators make of these subjects.

* This was a policy of Engels as far back as 1847.

HISTORY⁴

The decision of the Central Committee of the Party and the government of May 16, 1934 transfers the instruction of history upon a new and higher plane, and carries with it the reconstruction of the instruction of history in all its branches. The Central Committee of the Party recognized the unsatisfactory method of the instruction of history in the secondary schools and emphasized the necessity of "historical-chronological sequence in the presentation of historical events."

"Only such a course in history—stated the decision of the Central Committee—can provide the student with the accessibility, point of view and concreteness of historical material, the foundations of which bring about the universality of historical events leading the student to the Marxian understanding of history."

Simultaneously it was decided to prepare for June 1935 five new textbooks: (1) Ancient history; (2) Medieval history; (3) Modern history; (4) History of the U. S. S. R.; (5) History of dependent and colonial lands.

In the Soviet Union the historical education has not only a scholastic significance, but also the means of development, never before existing in any of the bourgeois lands.

Stalin paid special attention to the fact that neither the Soviet schools nor school textbooks are giving the younger generation concrete historical knowledge; they do not help them in the orientation of historical perspective, without which it is impossible to educate a Marxian-cultured society.

Since the textbook plays an important role in the education of the nation, it is important that its contents be of such a nature as to give the student a proper historical concept. Without an historical knowledge there cannot be a genuine Marxist. This Marx had in mind when he demanded an historical knowledge of nature and society.* "We recognize one and only one Science, the Science of history."

The proletariat is the only class in the entire universal history interested in a deeper understanding of the world, revolutionary transformation of which becomes its historical problem. The bourgeoisie, on the other hand, tending to preserve the existing order of things and proclaiming it to be eternal, is anti-historical in its world view.

* *German Ideology*, Karl Marx.

This is why in the U. S. S. R. particularly, in the land of the victorious proletariat, the study of concrete history and its laws present a vital political problem.

In the period of the existence of the Soviet regime a large staff of historians, a whole line of research institutes for the study of history has grown up, a great number of historical journals published. This made possible a more complete struggle with the bourgeois concept of history, the Mensheviks, Trotskyites, etc. Enormous strides were made in the field of creative work of many important problems in history, such as the history of Western Europe, the peasant movements, history of the proletariat in the U. S. S. R., history of the Revolution in 1905, history of the October Revolution, the Civil War and history of the Epochs of Imperialism.

History is a science which analyses how the first human societies appeared on earth, how and when inequality appeared on earth and how classes arose and class struggle began in class societies, it also includes the study of how the class struggle was carried on and is still carried on at the present time. The class struggle is the moving force in historical development, in all historical changes, all historical events; the class struggle is the motive power of history.

Historical science reached accuracy and perfection due to the works of Marx, Engels, and Lenin. They were revolutionists and did not separate history from class struggle; they understood how, how, why and in what direction history was moving. They created the only correct Marxian historical science.

For instance, Ministers, Rabbis and Priests of all other religions teach that all the world was created by God. Science examined these statements and found out that they were all fables, that no Gods ever existed in reality, and that the world arose not in a miraculous but in an absolutely natural manner.

Marxian historical science, therefore, has immense practical importance. It helps us to interpret historical events correctly, it does away with prejudices and miracles, it helps the Proletarians of the capitalist countries to struggle against the oppressing capitalist regime.*

GEOGRAPHY*

All schools are confronted with two fundamental problems: the first problem—to impart knowledge, the second problem—to give a definite amount of Communistic upbringing. Both problems are closely related and jointly dependent upon each other.

* V. I. Lenin, *Leo Tolstoi as a Mirror of the Revolution*, 1908.

Geography belongs to that number of subjects which encompass Nature, the lives and activities of people of the entire globe. This peculiarity makes Geography a powerful factor in education as well as upbringing.

The bourgeois school takes advantage of the upbringing quality of Geography. It is obvious that the upbringing problems of the bourgeois schools differ greatly from ours. The problems of the bourgeois schools are as follow: to educate the future worker as an obedient and religious person, and the future exploiter as a courageous and ruthless defender of the existing capitalist regime. Both are given a superiority complex—their race and nation are superior to all others.

To accomplish these purposes the bourgeois Geography describes the exploited colored nations not as people but beasts. "The Chinese eat cats, mice, and worms and do not think anything of it," is told in one prerevolutionary textbook. Similarly, describing the various primitive tribes, the cruelty of their wars, the bourgeois Geography does not make any mention of those Socio-economical settings and of the cruel exploitation in which these "poor" people find themselves.

As a result of similar descriptions the children of the bourgeois schools have a certain contempt for these "lower" races, and a respect toward the exploiters who are supplying "work and bread" for these beasts.

It is needless to say that nothing similar to that can possibly exist in the Soviet schools, especially in our Geographies. Instead of a religious education the Soviet schools educate an atheist, instead of an obedient and humble person, a fighter and active builder of Socialism.

Instead of contempt toward different nationalities the Soviet school aims to cultivate a feeling of deep respect toward the persecuted races discovering the reasons of their miserable existence. Discovering these reasons the school at the same time indicates methods of attack to help these people to improve their miserable conditions.

LITERATURE⁹

Literature has always joined the combats of its epoch, even when it has pretended to retire from them, even when it has tricked itself out with that childish label: "Art for Art's Sake." This label is ab-

surd. The mere fact of retiring from the battle is, whether one realizes it or not, to wash one's hands of social iniquity; it is to yield place to the oppressors, and tacitly to lend oneself to the crushing of the oppressed.

It is necessary to be frank. The great majority of bourgeois writers who call themselves apolitical are not so. This is true because they do not experience any desire to overturn the bourgeois order, the privileges of which in self-esteem if not in money, they desire to preserve; privileges which are craftily granted them so as better to tame them. They will not defend this order with arms, for it is not their profession to be brave, and they want to keep their hands lily-white. But without admitting it to themselves, they are on the side of the big guns.

Lenin's stand on this is quite clear. In an article written on literature he said: "Inasmuch as we live in a class society, there is not and cannot be a point of view which is not a class point of view in all the manifestations of the Spirit. Whether literature likes it or not, it is subject to the interests and passions of the social conflict; it is not and cannot be free from the interests of a class; everything is subject to the influence of classes in struggle, and principally to the interests of the dominant class which makes use of the most thorough methods of persuasion or restraint."

"Even the greatest of writers, the rare spirits who by force of character are (or think they are) independent of the prejudices and the despotism of opinion which govern the society of their time—even these mighty creative and critical personalities are never, can never be detached from the atmosphere of their times. The more abundant the flow of their thinking, the more does one see either mixing or conflicting therein the often contradictory currents both of the past and of the future. They are the mirrors of their age."

Tolstoi is a splendid example of the above. Lenin in his study of Tolstoi says:* "The association of the name of the great artist with the Revolution, from which he openly turned away, may at first appear strange and artificial. The contradictions in Tolstoi's opinions, from this point of view, are a real mirror of those contradictory conditions in which the historic activity of the peasantry in our Revolution was placed. On the one hand, we find in Tolstoi merciless criticism of capitalist exploitation, unmasking the governmental violence, the forces of the courts, revelation of all the depth of the

* V. I. Lenin, *Leo Tolstoi as a Mirror of the Revolution*, 1908.

contradiction between the growth of wealth, the achievements of civilization and the growth of poverty, savagery and suffering of the working masses; on the other hand, sermon about "non-resistance to evil" by force."

"Tolstoi expressed hatred of the status-quo, the striving towards something better, the desire to escape from the past. At the same time, he exhibits an unripe dreaminess, political illiteracy, revolutionary spinelessness. Historic-economic conditions explain both, the inevitability of the breaking out of the revolutionary struggle of the masses and their unpreparedness of the struggle—their Tolstolian non-resistance to evil—which was the most serious cause of the defeat of the first revolutionary campaign."

CONCLUSION

The reader will bear in mind that the above article is a symposium on education by Soviet educators. It is a study of Russian education as the Russian educator sees it.

To summarize: At the end of the World War the Russian school system was in a most deplorable state. The schools were usually housed in old, dilapidated shacks with hardly any equipment. The four years following the War, civil war ravaged the land. In spite of these obstacles the accomplishments made by the Soviet Union in the field of education are scarcely short of miraculous.

Beautiful, modern schools have been built and are being built continually. No expense is spared in the equipment of these schools. Beginning with kindergarten and extending through the University, the Russian citizen is given an opportunity for education. One will also find factory schools and schools for adult education.

In a short space of fifteen years the Russian has become cultural-minded, eager to learn and absorb knowledge. Modernity has replaced medievalism and backwardness. What the future will bring is open to conjecture.

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On Making the Curriculum Functional

H. K. SCHILLING

There is probably no greater problem facing the educator of today than that of making the educational processes functional. The problem is, of course, not a new one. No doubt teachers have always claimed that their aims and objectives were functional. They have always wanted their pupils and students to develop power—power to function as good members of the family, the community, the church, the state. Certainly there has been much talk to the effect that the college exists to develop the ability to reason, to stimulate and perpetuate an undying intellectual curiosity, to bring forth the desire to create and to make possible the realization of that desire, to produce intelligent and effective leadership, etc. Unfortunately, however, these objectives have in reality been ultimate rather than immediate with the result that their realization has been a mere by-product of our educational machinery. What has actually absorbed our conscious effort, what we have really designed our machinery for, has been the production of absorbers of subject matter. If anything has appeared other than this—and fortunately there has, though not too much—it has come into being in spite of our machinery and certainly not because of it. What is needed, therefore, is a different approach—and a more direct one—redesigned methodological equipment and processes, emphasis of thought and concentration of effort upon “first things,” in brief: education that really works—that functions.

An important device of the educator is the curriculum as defined in terms of requirements for graduation. This article concerns itself largely with the question of how graduation requirements might be restated in such a manner as to focus attention and endeavor upon those characteristics of our educational product which in the light of the objectives universally claimed for collegiate education seem to be of primary importance.

There can be no doubt that, at present, following a curriculum and meeting requirements for graduation are largely matters of collecting tokens. Graduation is virtually guaranteed to any student who can amass a certain number of semester hours and credit, or “honor,” points and who has been on the campus long enough to allow the earth to revolve around the sun the proper mystic number of times.

The question of whether the candidate for a degree has intellectual maturity or has the ability actually to function—as scholar, artist, artisan, or as member of a so-called profession—usually has absolutely nothing to do with the decision of the faculty to award or withhold the degree. It is doubtful that any student, after having acquired the proper number of tokens, has ever been denied a degree because he was thought incapable of functioning after receiving it. It is admitted, of course, that semester hours, credit points, etc., are mere symbols. They are supposed to stand, and probably actually do, for certain worth-while accomplishments; but these achievements are largely a matter of absorbing knowledge, and “mastering” subject matter. In other words, our curriculums in the traditional liberal arts college are built up of “courses” designed largely to impart knowledge rather than to develop abilities, and graduation requirements are met by “passing” these courses.

It has been argued that the higher, more desirable qualities, abilities, and attitudes, are too intangible to be measurable and cannot, therefore, be used as standards which candidates for degrees should be required to reach. The writer wishes to urge that while this is undoubtedly true of many of them, there nevertheless remain available many others which are very tangible indeed and for which instruments of reliable evaluation now exist or can probably be developed without too much difficulty, and that therefore these can logically and practically be used as criteria upon which to base graduation requirements.

To illustrate this thesis, and to give concrete meaning to it, the problem of the professor of physics may be considered. One of his duties as officer of instruction is, in co-operation with others, to turn out physicists and physics teachers. What, precisely, should he be expected to accomplish? When would he be justified in passing a student on to a graduate school for further training with the recommendation that he continue work in physics? Or, when would he be justified in certifying that a given student is properly equipped to enter an industrial or government laboratory as a junior physicist or that he is qualified to serve a community as teacher of youth in the field of physics? Certainly he would be justified in requiring that the student desiring to become a physicist give evidence (A) that he has a proper fund of knowledge; (B) that he has had certain types of experience and has thereby acquired and developed certain important specific abilities.

A. He might be expected:

- (1) To have a well-rounded knowledge of the content of classical physics.
- (2) To possess sufficient knowledge of modern physics to insure his understanding of new ways of thinking in physics and to give him a strong foundation upon which to build a superstructure of continued personal study.
- (3) To acquire a knowledge of the methods of experimental and theoretical physics.
- (4) To have a knowledge of the literature, history and philosophy of physics.
- (5) To look into the beyond and to become aware in a definite way of the great fields of physics he has not yet entered himself. (When, for instance, a senior of mathematics on the day before graduation asks what mathematics lies beyond differential equations he is not ready for a degree even if he has only A's on his record.)
- (6) To become acquainted with the great fact that not only are there fields of physics that *he* has not yet entered, but that there are fields which probably *no one else* has yet entered. No one can properly claim to be a physicist until he is aware of some of the great unsolved problems of physics.
- (7) To know something about other disciplines, tool subjects, etc. Much might be said about this. However, limitations of space forbid.

B. In addition to this knowledge he might be expected:

- (1) To have felt the pains and joys of discovery and to appreciate the meaning of the word "research" through having actually engaged in it.
- (2) To demonstrate his ability to formulate a serious problem of his own choosing and to solve it.
- (3) To demonstrate his ability to analyze an experimental or theoretical situation in order to discover what problems are crucial and therefore demand solution first.
- (4) To demonstrate his ability to use an available library effectively.
- (5) To demonstrate the habitual use on his part of logical processes of mind.

The above list of "specifications" is, no doubt, a minimum list. Every physicist would wish to make significant and important additions to it before accepting it as complete or satisfactory. The writer is of the opinion, however, that it is a list of typical requirements which can be formulated definitely, and respecting which successful attainment *can be demonstrated* in an objective manner, and which therefore could be used in practical institutional situations as graduation requirements.

To amplify the matter further, briefly, if a student wished to become a teacher of physics such requirements as the following might be added to the foregoing ones:

- (1) He should be aware of the great solved and unsolved problems confronting the teacher, and the teaching profession, and the standard methods of attacking them.
- (2) He should know the great names, books and journals in his particular chosen field of education and of education in general.

He might well be expected to demonstrate:

- (3) His ability to teach or his ability to learn how to teach.
- (4) His appreciative understanding of the problems of society and of the individual.
- (5) His acquisition of proper habits of study and his ability to develop such habits in the lives of pupils.
- (6) His ability as leader, etc., etc.

The last four of these conceivably could be demonstrated by the student, and evaluated by his supervising professor or committee, during a period of apprenticeship teaching which might precede the granting of both the degree and the teaching certificate.

It will be recognized at once that to outline a given curriculum in the manner proposed here is to define it and particularize it directly in terms of the actual realization of objectives instead of indirectly in terms of mere minimum requirements as evidenced by a more or less meaningless accumulation of so-called "credits."

Probably no word has appeared in recent educational literature more frequently or has wielded more power than the word "objectives." Perhaps no major movement in higher education today has gained momentum quite so rapidly or quite so over-whelmingly as

the movement to restate objectives, to fit institutions and processes to, and to evaluate institutions in terms of, those objectives.

It would seem to the writer that a functional curriculum as proposed here—and elsewhere by others—is but the natural fruit of the spirit of that movement and the logical consequence of the educational philosophy underlying it.

Under such a scheme what would happen to semester hours, honor points, majors and minors, minimum time requirements, etc.? Apparently there are two ways in which an institution might relate itself to them—and neither of them appears to be necessarily concomitant with the objective-centered curriculum as here set forth.

In the first place, all such fetishes might be scrapped—perhaps with no resultant loss. Departments or divisions of the college would be expected to draw up lists of requirements in the various fields of scholarship or for various occupations somewhat after the manner discussed herein for physicists or physics teachers. These outlines could be published in college catalogs just as easily as the traditional sequences and curriculums appearing there now. When students had satisfied instructors or examining committees that the requirements had been met, certificates to that effect could be filed with registrars just as conveniently as can the customary grades at present. Specific time requirements would probably be abolished. It is altogether conceivable that in such a situation a student would, under intelligent guidance, know quite as definitely “where he stood” as he does in the conventional college of today and that, considering qualitative as well as quantitative standing, he might know even more about it.

A more conservative institution might, on the other hand, choose to retain the present type of quantitative graduation requirements and superimpose upon them such qualitative and functional requirements as its objectives called for. Such a course might seem to some to be much less satisfactory because of the retention of apparently useless deadwood. To others more interested in, or exercised about, certain administrative problems, such as that of transferring credit, and the like, it would appear vastly better. It would not, however, in the opinion of the writer, be inconsistent with the spirit and ideals of modern curriculum construction—which merely call for a curriculum which is functional and not for particular schemes of administration.

The Value of Non-Academic Permanent Records

SOPHIA M. UHLKEN

The Nebraska State Normal College at Chadron adopted a non-academic permanent record form in September, 1935, after making a careful study of what was being done in approximately fifty institutions including teachers colleges, liberal arts colleges, and universities. Through correspondence with this group of representative colleges early in 1935, it was found that out of twelve teachers colleges, six of them were using some type of non-academic record form; out of twenty liberal arts colleges, twelve of them had adopted some form for recording non-academic activities; and out of seventeen universities, eleven of them were giving consideration to this type of permanent record. A careful study of the record forms that are being kept in these colleges revealed that very little uniformity exist among them in collecting non-academic data. It is evident that each institution must adopt a form that satisfies its particular needs. Naturally the size of the student body is a determining factor in the adoption of a practicable form.

Any college expecting to adopt a non-academic record should be guided by certain criteria:

1. It must be easily interpreted. It should not contain so many details that the general perspective is destroyed. Information of temporary value should not be included on a permanent record.
2. It must be easily accessible. It should be at the disposal of faculty advisers, deans, and other members of the faculty who have a personal interest in students.
3. It must be co-ordinated with the internal social organization of the college.
4. It should be used in conjunction with the academic record, and maintained in connection with the Office of the Registrar.
5. It should represent an accumulation of several individuals' estimates of a student.
6. It must be workable. Data to be recorded from time to time must be of such a nature that it can be easily accumulated.

The non-academic records for students who were in attendance during 1935-36 give data under eight main sections of the form, as follows:

Family and Personal Data (including photograph)
Report on High School Activities
Contribution to College Activities

Personality Inventory
 Self-Support in College
 Offices Held in College
 Outstanding Achievements in College
 Mental and Aptitude Tests

Possibly a brief account of data recorded, and in some instances tabulated material for 1935-36 from the various sections of the non-academic record in use at Chadron, will bespeak the value of having these data on file.

FAMILY AND PERSONAL DATA

A record of the educational background of a student's parents and of his brothers and sisters, the occupation of the father, the home environment of town or country, and the marital status of the parents, makes it possible to arrive at a fair estimate of a student's educational background, and of his social advantages up to the present time. A student's choice of vocational goal should be given careful consideration. Table I, which reveals the vocational

TABLE I
SUMMARY OF VOCATIONAL CHOICE OF STUDENTS

VOCATIONAL GOAL	NUMBER OF STUDENTS	VOCATIONAL GOAL	NUMBER OF STUDENTS
Teaching.....	207	Home Economics Research	6
Commerce.....	75	Librarian.....	4
None Given.....	39	Forestry.....	4
Engineering.....	23	Aviation.....	4
Law.....	19	Nursing.....	3
Chemical research.....	12	Pharmacy.....	2
Medicine.....	9	Beauty culture.....	2
Art.....	9	Social service work.....	2
Journalism.....	8	Ministry.....	1
		Total.....	429

interests of students enrolled for the winter quarter, 1935-36, is significant. It showed that only 48 per cent or slightly less than half the students enrolled had chosen teaching for their ultimate vocational goal, despite the fact that they were enrolled in a teacher's college.

REPORT ON HIGH SCHOOL ACTIVITIES

To secure the information included under this section requires the co-operation of the high school authorities. If freshmen advisers

are to function effectively they need to know the scholarship rank of the student, a statement of activities engaged in, his most outstanding success, his most valuable assets, his handicaps, and a prediction for his success in college. An adviser who is prepared to discuss tactfully with his advisee the highlights as well as the pitfalls of his high school training is sure to strike a responsive note in the attitude of a reticent freshman.

CONTRIBUTION TO COLLEGE ACTIVITIES

This section of the non-academic record is of major importance, inasmuch as it represents a complete record of the student's extra-curricular activities on the campus. This section requires the co-operation of faculty sponsors and student officers of each organization and activity. During the spring quarter of 1934-35 the Student Council, in co-operation with the sponsors and officers of the organizations on the campus, agreed on reporting student participation in organizations and activities as follows: At the close of each

TABLE II

COLLEGE ACTIVITIES VERSUS SCHOLARSHIP STANDING, 1935-36

NUMBER OF STUDENTS	AVERAGE NUMBER OF ACTIVITIES	SCHOLARSHIP AVERAGES FOR THE YEAR
98	None	1.32
105	One	1.43
85	Two	1.57
37	Three	1.66
17	Four	1.82
10	Five	1.78
6	Six	1.82
2	Seven	2.37
360		

quarter the faculty sponsor and president of each organization list their membership on a form that has been mimeographed for that purpose, rating them above average, average, or below average. The rating which the student receives is based chiefly on attendance, committee work, payment of organization fees, and his general attitude toward and ability within the organization. During the year 1935-36, 26 organizations and activities functioned with a total membership attendance of 575 students in the fall quarter, 597 students in the winter quarter, and 596 students in the spring quarter.

A total of 360 students were in attendance during the entire year 1935-1936. A comparative study has been made of the con-

tribution to college activities of this group of students in relation to their scholarship averages for the year. The following academic grade and quality point system for each hour of credit is used: A—3 points; B—2 points; C—1 point; D—0 points; I (incomplete)—0 points; F (failed)—minus 1 point. Table II reveals that, with the exception of students who contributed to an average of five activities each quarter during the year, the greater the participation in extracurricular activities, the higher the scholastic attainments. There are individual exceptions, of course, but it is evident that, taken as a group, students who rank high scholastically also contribute the most to college activities.

It was further revealed that of the 117 students who were in attendance for only a part of the year, 72 participated in no activities and 34 participated in only one.

PERSONALITY INVENTORY

The student is checked on ten personality traits: appearance, bearing and care of person; health and physical vigor; voice, clearness of speech; seriousness in undertakings; friendliness, ability to make friends; attitude and co-operation; assurance; leadership and ambition; judgment, common sense; dependability, sense of honor. Students are rated exceptional, good, average, or fair, on these items. These personality ratings are made by four individuals. In connection with the report on a student's high school activities, a high school authority is also asked to rate the student on these personality traits. Near the close of the student's freshman year, his freshman adviser is asked to rate him; near the close of the student's junior year his major adviser is called upon to rate him; and finally, near the close of the student's senior year, the Personnel Director passes judgment on him. Thus, in the end, the personality inventory gives a picture of an individual from high school graduation to college graduation, inclusive. The name of the individual who makes a report and the date of the report are also recorded on the non-academic record.

SELF-SUPPORT IN COLLEGE

The data recorded in this section include whole, partial, and no self-support in fees, board, room, and clothes for the year. The type of part-time work done is also recorded. To know whether or not a student is partially or wholly self-supporting and still able to maintain a creditable academic record is significant. On the other hand,

the student who is not self-supporting in any way and still does not do well scholastically requires investigation. Table III shows the number of students (including only the 360 who were in attendance during the entire year) who were wholly, partially, or not at all self-supporting during the year, together with the average scholarship of each group. The table shows that the groups of students who were partially and wholly self-supporting ranked higher in scholarship than did the group who were not self-supporting in any way. Doubtless there are many individual exceptions, but on the whole the partially and wholly self-supporting students rank slightly higher in scholarship. This fact can possibly be attributed to seriousness of purpose on the part of partially and wholly self-supporting students.

TABLE III
SELF-SUPPORT AND SCHOLARSHIP, 1935-36

NUMBER OF STUDENTS	AMOUNT OF SELF-SUPPORT	AVERAGE SCHOLARSHIP
110	None	1.42
207	Partially	1.54
43	Wholly	1.46

OFFICES HELD IN COLLEGE

On this campus all organization offices are held by students for one academic year. This record is of value in that it is indicative of a certain degree of leadership among students. In order to avoid having students become overburdened with the responsibilities connected with the student activities on the campus, and to give more students an opportunity to assume leadership, no student is allowed to hold offices in classes and organizations to total above six points, based upon a weighting system of student offices. On this basis student offices were distributed during 1935-36 as indicated in Table IV. Only four offices were held among the 117 students who were in attendance during only a part of the year.

TABLE IV
DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENT OFFICES, 1935-36

NUMBER OF OFFICES HELD	NUMBER OF STUDENTS
One.....	57
Two.....	15
Three.....	6
Four.....	1

OUTSTANDING ACHIEVEMENTS IN COLLEGE

This section is reserved for recording special recognitions. Near the close of the spring quarter each faculty member is given a form on which to report any outstanding achievement among students of his acquaintance during the year. In this way individual students receive credit for outstanding abilities that would otherwise remain unnoticed. Table V shows the distribution among the students of outstanding achievements. Only three students of the 117 who were not in attendance during the entire year received recognition in some outstanding achievement.

TABLE V
OUTSTANDING ACHIEVEMENTS AMONG STUDENTS, 1935-36

NUMBER OF ACHIEVEMENTS	NUMBER OF STUDENTS
One.....	46
Two.....	6
Three.....	2
Four.....	1

MENTAL AND APTITUDE TESTS

At present we give a mental test to all freshmen upon entrance; placement tests for freshman composition; and aptitude tests in arithmetic and penmanship to all students who pursue elementary curriculums preparatory for teaching.

CONCLUSIONS

The first complete non-academic record will be available when our 1935-36 freshmen graduate from college. There are many valid reasons to substantiate the maintenance of non-academic records in every college office. These may be briefly summarized, as follows:

1. It makes easily accessible to deans and faculty advisers information which is essential to proper educational, vocational, and personal guidance.
2. By having a systematic method of recording in effect, it avoids inaccurate estimates of a student's accomplishments during college, aside from his intellectual attainments.
3. An administrative check on extracurricular activities results in better campus organizations.
4. The information accumulated on non-academic records is of considerable value in the placement of students in all types of positions.
5. Administrative emphasis on the value of extracurricular activities results in a greater personality development of the student body.

The Predictive Value of Rank in High School Graduating Class

G. P. TUTTLE

In 1933 the University of Illinois revised its entrance requirements quite materially, the new requirements becoming fully effective for students entering the University in September 1935 and thereafter. Among the various new proposals was one to the effect that the Registrar "is authorized to admit, without adhering to the usual subject requirements, a student whose scholarship rank is in the upper twenty-five per cent of his high school graduating class." At about the same time (1933) the University, in most of its undergraduate colleges began to expand its student personnel work, and particularly in the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences, to study more thoroughly, the problem of the student who apparently is scholastically deficient. It became increasingly important for the University to have some predictive measure of the student's probable success in college.

No state-wide testing program was in effect in Illinois nor did it seem probable that such a program could be anticipated in the very near future. There was considerable evidence indicating that rank in class was a good criterion of later success in college. Consequently for the past two years the University has been insisting upon a statement of the rank in class as a part of the information required in connection with admission. This study reports the success during the freshman year of the class admitted in September 1935 and indicates the relationship between rank in high school class and first year rank at the University of Illinois.

In September 1935, 2,602 Freshmen were admitted. Of this number 459 (18 per cent) are eliminated from the study for the following reasons: 325 because they did not complete two semesters of work (234 of these did finish the first semester); 122 because their rank in class was not available; 12 because of "excused" grades given on account of illness and hence leaving their records incomplete at the end of the year. There are, therefore, 2,143 students whose Freshman year records are included in the study, representing eighty-two per cent of the entire number admitted in September 1935.

It must be borne in mind that at the University of Illinois, as with other state universities, there is no selective admission in the sense

that low ranking high school students are denied admission. In spite of this, seventy-one per cent of the class ranked in the upper fifty per cent of their high school classes and twenty-eight per cent came from the lower fifty per cent. The complete data show also that 449 (21 per cent) of the class ranked in the highest ten per cent of their high school classes and three per cent were from the lowest ten per cent.

In order to understand the significance of the grade averages presented below, it is necessary to state the grading system at the University and the numerical equivalents which are used in determining averages. There are four passing grades, from highest to lowest, A. B. C. D. The failing grade is E. The following numerical equivalents are used: A = 5; B = 4; C = 3; D = 2; E (failure) = 1.

The year's work of these 2,143 Freshmen may be summarized as follows: Average grade for the year was 3.17; the number of students with one or more failures was 847 (39 per cent of those entering); the number on scholastic probation at the end of the year was 326 (15 per cent of those entering); the number dropped for poor scholarship at the end of the year was 260 (12 per cent of those entering).

Upon separating the group according to quartile rank of the high school graduating class some interesting facts present themselves. These are shown in Table I.

TABLE I
FRESHMAN SCHOLARSHIP AND RANK IN CLASS

DIVISION OF HIGH SCHOOL CLASS	NO. OF CASES	AVERAGE GRADE FRESHMAN YEAR	PER CENT WITH ONE OR MORE FAILURES	PER CENT ON PROBATION*	PER CENT DROPPED*
Highest 10%	449	4.00	8.5	2.9	.7
Highest 25%	967	3.68	16.6	7.2	2.3
Next to highest 25%	566	2.94	46.4	19.4	13.4
Next to low- est 25%	383	2.61	66.0	23.5	22.4
Lowest 25%	227	2.50	75.0	24.6	33.0
Lowest 10%	62	2.34	79.0	22.6	46.8

* For poor scholarship.

It will at once be noted that there is a distinct lowering of scholarship results between those students who ranked in the highest twenty-five per cent of their high school classes and those who ranked in next to the highest twenty-five per cent. As we progress

down the scale, we find scholarship in the University becoming progressively worse. In fact, the only one of these divisions which has a group average indicative of real success in college is the highest twenty-five per cent. This, of course, includes those in the highest ten per cent. All other groups have fallen below the average for the class (3.17). There are, however, many individuals in the lower groups who have made entirely satisfactory records.

Table II presents data indicating by rank in class records made in each undergraduate college of the University.

In general it will be seen that the records of students within each college follow the trends indicated in Table I. Exceptions to this general rule are the College of Fine and Applied Arts (including Art, Architecture, Music and Landscape Architecture) and the School of Physical Education. Students in the College of Fine and Applied Arts ranking in the lowest twenty-five per cent of their high school classes have done relatively better work than have students of similar high school rank registered in other undergraduate colleges, except for Physical Education. Moreover, students registered in Fine and Applied Arts who ranked in the highest twenty-five per cent of their high school classes have made a higher average (3.78) than have those registered in any other undergraduate college. Probably here certain skills are involved which are not measured by rank in class. Nevertheless it would appear that rank in high school class is a significant factor in the success or failure of students in this College. The School of Physical Education presents a different picture. In this division of the University students ranking in the lowest twenty-five per cent of their high school classes have maintained a considerably better average than the average for their group and the average for those ranking in the highest twenty-five per cent is lower than that for any other college. Here, it would appear, that the skills involved may not be so closely related to academic standing in high school. This is borne out by the fact that students in this division of the University who ranked in the highest twenty-five per cent of their high school classes averaged only 3.37 in their Freshman year and students ranking in the lowest twenty-five per cent of their high school classes have been able to maintain an average of 2.81 in their Freshman year. This is in contrast to a spread in Liberal Arts and Sciences of from 3.71 for those ranking in the highest twenty-five per cent to 2.47 for those ranking in the lowest twenty-five per cent. Industrial Education presents

TABLE II
FIRST YEAR SUCCESS ACCORDING TO COLLEGE AND HIGH SCHOOL RANK FOR FRESHMEN
ADMITTED IN SEPTEMBER 1935

COLLEGE	LOWEST 25%			NEXT TO LOWEST 25%			NEXT TO HIGHEST 25%			HIGHEST 25%		
	NUMBER AD- MITTED	AV. GRADE	NUMBER DROPPED	NUMBER AD- MITTED	AV. GRADE	NUMBER DROPPED	NUMBER AD- MITTED	AV. GRADE	NUMBER DROPPED	NUMBER AD- MITTED	AV. GRADE	NUMBER DROPPED
Liberal Arts & Sci.....	975	2.48	43	140	2.53	55	258	2.89	50	487	3.71	19
Commerce.....	455	2.37	13	117	2.58	21	117	2.99	8	165	3.62	1
Industrial Education.....	11	1.79	2	3	2.36	1	4	2.64	1	2	2.59	1
Engineering.....	282	2.50	9	44	2.64	4	75	2.90	10	135	3.69	0
Agriculture.....	248	2.54	4	41	2.69	2	75	2.99	7	112	3.65	0
Fine & Applied Arts.....	91	2.85	1	13	2.80	2	23	3.18	0	45	3.78	1
Physical Education.....	81	2.81	3	25	2.90	1	14	3.01	0	21	3.37	1
Total.....	2143	2.50	75 (33%)	383	2.61	86 (22%)	566	2.94	76 (13%)	967	3.68	23 (2%)

TABLE III
PREDICTIVE VALUE OF RANK IN HIGH SCHOOL CLASS AS DISCLOSED BY FIRST YEAR RECORDS OF
FRESHMEN ADMITTED IN SEPTEMBER 1935

TABLE III
PREDICTIVE VALUE OF RANK IN HIGH SCHOOL CLASS AS DISCLOSED BY FIRST YEAR RECORDS OF FRESHMEN ADMITTED IN SEPTEMBER 1935

1. Number and percentage of Freshmen ranking in highest and lowest 25% of high school class, with yearly averages above and below the average for all Freshmen.

COLLEGE	HIGHEST 25%				LOWEST 25%			
	NUMBER OF FRESHMEN IN GROUP	ABOVE FRESHMAN AVERAGE		BELOW FRESHMAN AVERAGE	NUMBER OF FRESHMEN IN GROUP	ABOVE FRESHMAN AVERAGE		BELOW FRESHMAN AVERAGE
		No.	PER CENT			No.	PER CENT	
Liberal Arts and Sciences...	487	375	77	112	90	13	14	77
Commerce.....	165	121	73	44	56	2	4	54
Education—Industrial.....	2	1	50	1	2	—	—	2
Engineering.....	135	103	76	32	28	4	14	24
Agriculture.....	112	86	77	26	20	2	10	18
Fine and Applied Arts.....	45	37	82	8	10	2	20	8
Physical Education.....	21	11	52	10	21	5	24	16
Total.....	967	734	76	233	227	28	12	199

2. Number and percentage of Freshmen ranking in the highest and lowest 10% of high school class, with yearly averages above and below average for all Freshmen.

COLLEGE	HIGHEST 10%				LOWEST 10%			
	NUMBER OF FRESHMEN IN GROUP	ABOVE FRESHMAN AVERAGE		BELOW FRESHMAN AVERAGE	NUMBER OF FRESHMEN IN GROUP	ABOVE FRESHMAN AVERAGE		BELOW FRESHMAN AVERAGE
		No.	PER CENT			No.	PER CENT	
Liberal Arts and Sciences...	243	213	88	30	22	2	9	20
Commerce.....	65	59	91	6	12	—	—	12
Education—Industrial.....	—	—	—	—	2	—	—	2
Engineering.....	65	58	89	7	8	1	12	7
Agriculture.....	53	47	89	6	8	1	12	7
Fine and Applied Arts.....	18	16	89	2	3	1	33	2
Physical Education.....	5	5	100	—	7	1	14	6
Total.....	449	398	89	51	62	6	10	56

about the same situation as does Physical Education, but here the number of students involved is very small.

As with other predictive measures, doubtless the rank in high school class loses some of its value in the middle groups. However, if there is predictive value in this measure of ability it should certainly appear for those students whose rank in high school is either high or low. Table III presents data on this matter.

It has been assumed that fair success in the University of Illinois has been accomplished by students who have maintained during the Freshman year an average grade at least equal to the average for the entire Freshman class (3.17) or about C on the four grade scale of the University of Illinois, where D is the lowest passing grade). With this definition of success as a basis, there are presented in this table, (1) for those ranking in the highest and lowest twenty-five per cent of their high school classes, and (2) for those ranking in the highest and lowest ten per cent of their high school classes, the number and per cent of students who in their Freshman year have maintained averages above and below the general class average.

It will be noted that seventy-six per cent and eighty-nine per cent of those students ranking respectively in the highest twenty-five per cent and highest ten per cent of their high school classes have met this standard of success. Turning to the lowest twenty-five per cent and lowest ten per cent, it will be seen that eighty-eight per cent and ninety per cent have failed to meet the standard. These are merely facts and no attempt has been made to work out statistically the correlation which exists. Still it is quite obvious that for these groups rank in class could have been used to predict the student's probable success in college with a good degree of accuracy. Of course, it cannot be overlooked that many students did not perform in accordance with expectations based on their rank in class. Two hundred thirty-three students (24 per cent of the group) ranking in the highest twenty-five per cent came to the end of the year with average grades below the class average. While Table III does not show this, it is a fact that sixty-five of these students were placed on probation at the end of the year for poor scholarship and twenty-three were dropped from the University for the same reason. The year average made by this group of 233 students was 2.75, or little better than the average for the group entering from next to the lowest twenty-five per cent (2.61). On the other hand, there were twenty-eight (12 per cent of the group) ranking in the lowest

twenty-five per cent who made good on the basis of the class average standard. Table III does not show the actual record made by this group, but it is a fact that this group of twenty-eight students made an average grade for the year of 3.61 which is only slightly below the average made by all students ranking in the highest twenty-five per cent of their high school classes (3.68).

Naturally, the percentage of true performance between high school class rank and freshman university record vary considerably between different colleges of the University. This may be due in large part to the small number of students involved in certain instances.

The 234 students who left the University at the end of the first semester have not been included in the preceding discussion. Seventy-two per cent (49 students) of this group ranking in the lowest quarter of the entering class were dropped for poor scholarship at the end of the first semester. The percentages in the other class rankings who were dropped for poor scholarship are as follows:

Next to the lowest twenty-five per cent . . . 27% (17 students)

Next to the highest twenty-five per cent . . . 34% (22 students)

Highest twenty-five per cent 15% (6 students)

TABLE IV

SUMMARY OF STUDENTS WHO LEFT THE UNIVERSITY AT THE
END OF THE FIRST SEMESTER

RANK IN HIGH SCHOOL CLASS	TOTAL NUMBER ADMITTED INCLUDING THOSE COMPLETING ONLY ONE SEMESTER	NUMBER COMPLETING ONLY ONE SEMESTER	PERCENTAGE OF THOSE IN THIS CLASS RANK WHO COMPLETED ONLY ONE SEMESTER
Highest 25%	1007	40	4
Next to highest 25%	630	64	10
Next to lowest 25%	445	62	14
Lowest 25%	295	68	23
Total	2377	234	

Thus it will be seen that twenty-three per cent of those who ranked in the lowest fourth of their high school classes left after only one semester of attendance. Furthermore forty-nine of the sixty-eight students in this class rank who did not attend beyond the first semester were dropped for poor scholarship. The percentages of total withdrawals from the other class rank groups are equally interesting. It will be noted that these decrease in regular order as we ascend

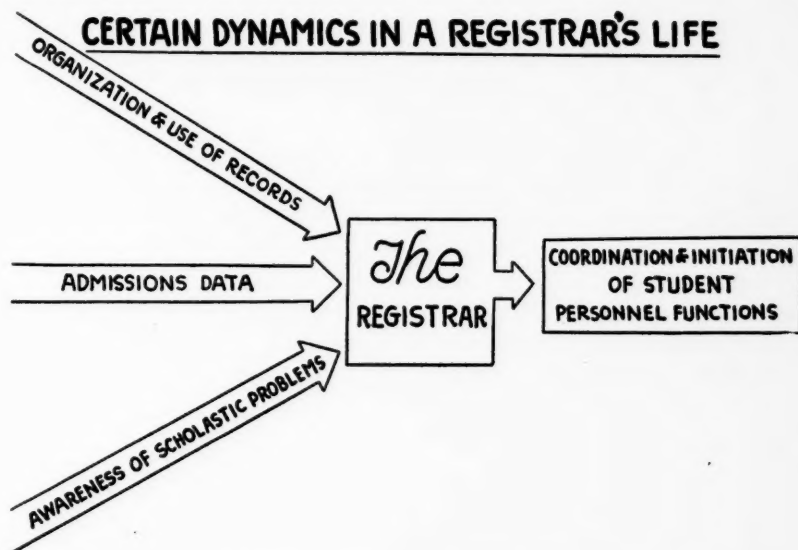
the scale, until from the highest twenty-five per cent only four per cent withdrew after the first semester. It would appear that here is further evidence of the reliability of rank in class.

It is not the purpose of this paper to draw any particular conclusions. It is rather the intention merely to present a picture of what happened to students entering the University of Illinois in September 1935, and to compare their scholarship here with their scholarship in high school as measured by class rank. Perhaps, however, the facts presented do bear out other studies which have indicated the importance of rank in high school class as a factor for predicting probable success in college.

Why the Registrar Is Interested in Student Personnel Work¹

C. GILBERT WRENN

There are three propulsive forces involved in the work of a registrar which normally and inevitably propel him toward the assumption of an interest in student personnel work. These forces as illustrated on the chart below are (1) organization and use of records; (2) admissions data; and (3) awareness of scholastic problems. These forces converge in the registrar's office and establish his inescapable relationship to the coordination and initiation of student personnel functions.



In this paper will be discussed separately the point of view which the progressive registrar must take in correlating these three forces so that the outcomes will express themselves through the academic life and activity of the students.

The organization and use of student records must be directed by some policy. The registrar should not be a custodian of college records. The term custodian implies that he is a caretaker of dead and inani-

¹ Abridgment of an address given before the Minnesota Association of Collegiate Registrars at St. Paul, Minn., Nov. 7, 1936.

mate things. The registrar is rather a director or coach of a corps of live and vital records, marshalling them first for an attack in this direction and then in another. Why a given record is kept, in what form it is kept, how accessible it is, and the relationships between different types of records must all be determined in terms of the uses to which these records are put. A considerable emphasis of this use is in terms of student personnel functions. Unless a registrar has a policy in mind for the organization and use of his records, he becomes merely a clerk and sometimes a rather disagreeable one.

If records are valuable enough to keep, they must be valuable for use. Here are some typical situations. A fraternity president wishes to ascertain the scholarship averages of his pledges. This request is considered legitimate only if the use of these averages is in the direction of the maintenance of a higher scholarship average in the fraternity and in the University. The president of a Japanese co-operative residence wants to look over the admissions folders to find the names of new Japanese students. If this house is serving an orientation function on the campus and is justifiable from the personnel point of view, then the request is legitimate. The Health Service desires a list of students whose previous records indicate more than a specified amount of illness. The health standards of the University are being served by the registrar when this list is supplied. Over and over again it will be found that the uses of registrars' office records must be decided in terms of some consistent philosophy which reflects the interest of the registrar in the welfare of the students on the campus. The possession of such records drives the registrar toward a consideration of student personnel problems and functions.

The dynamic nature of admissions data demands their use.—It would be a short-sighted view, indeed, that would consider information gathered for admissions purposes restricted to use at time of application only. In the first place these data provide the only information that the college has about the student at the time of his registration. If they have been useful for determining the basis of his admission, they are fully as useful as a basis for any attempts to assist in his orientation at the college. The registrar will find that the list of freshmen applicants will be much in demand by various organizations. The extent to which such a list is made available must be determined in terms of the validity of the proposed use. In other words, a student personnel policy must again be used as a

measuring stick for settlement of the problem of whom shall use the data upon freshmen.

Around these admissions data will be organized the orientation program, particularly Freshmen Week. If the Freshmen Week counselors are to be at all effective they must have at hand all available advance information. The registrar is probably the key person in the organization of a pre-registration or Freshmen Week period. He may be the individual who sees the dynamic nature of admissions data and insists upon their use, leads in the organization of any orientation efforts and thereby further justifies the expense and time involved in the collection and organization of admissions materials. On the other hand, he may balk every effort at such a program because it may involve more work for his office or because some of his records may be disarranged in their use by faculty advisers. Admissions records, like any other, must be organized for use, and for use while they are most vital and unique.

Another important use to which such data must be put is in terms of studies organized to ascertain the validity of admissions criteria that have been set up. Very often these criteria are proposed from an entirely subjective basis; namely, the registrar's or admissions committee's best "hunch." As rapidly as information becomes available, however, each criterion must be subjected to validation follow-up studies. Here is an illustration. At Stanford University a modified form of the American Council Rating Scale has been in use for several years. It is used by the admissions committee as one of several admissions factors and has never been given any specific weighting as is true for the high school record and the College Aptitude Test. A study by the writer and Miss Crandall, soon to be reported in the literature, disclosed that one of the five items of the rating scale was highly predictive of freshman scholarship, whereas the other four items have small prediction value. This one point of the rating scale, "Has he a program with definite purposes in terms of which he distributes his time and energy?", is almost as predictive of freshman scholarship as is the College Aptitude Test. It is obvious that further use of this rating scale should give more weight to this one item rather than using the blank as a rather subjective whole.

One further point in connection with admissions material is to suggest that the admissions policy *is* the policy of the university. The type of student that the university would like to receive is determined in terms of the kind of educational emphasis the insti-

tution maintains and what is to be done for and with the student. Hence, the admissions committee is a policy-making committee for the university. The registrar in his important relation to the admission of students, either as chairman of the admissions board or as a colleague of the admissions officer, will play a large part in determining the type of student admitted and what is done for him after he is admitted.

The registrar's supreme awareness of scholastic problems in the university.—The third dynamic to be discussed arises out of the registrar's constant acquaintanceship with the scholastic problems of the university. The records tell a tale that he cannot be blind to.

Here are students of good academic ability who are failing. Why? Is there a lack of scholastic motivation that may mean lack of vocational aim or life purpose? What assistance is given to the student in his choice of a goal in life? On the other hand, potentially good students may fail because they are lacking in adequate study skills. Is there needed some diagnostic and clinical assistance in study and reading habits? As a man most aware of such problems, the registrar must become a leader in the development of such counseling and clinical programs. Somewhere in the registrar's records the student's program of so-called extra-class activities is recorded. What is the relationship of this program to his scholastic program?

The registrar will know what is being done or not being done because he sees the problems. It must not be forgotten, however, that the very quality that makes the registrar a good leader in such matters, his insistence on facts and his refusal to be stampeded, may at the same time rob him of courage and vision, may keep him from being an educational statesman. Someone has said that in the President's cabinet the registrar must act as Secretary of State. His counsel and attitude are vital to the determination of the internal policies of the college. Equally vital are the external policies of admissions and public relations. I sincerely believe that a registrar worthy of the name will feel these urges toward the coordination and initiation of student personnel functions and will respond with as forceful and intelligent effort as the occasion permits. Lacking specialized training or adequate technical skills for performing such functions he will evidence real leadership by employing professional assistants or by initiating the appointment of a personnel officer. He cannot escape the obligation.

An Evaluation of Teacher Certification in California

LEO F. CAIN

Ever since the ratification of the first state constitution on November 13, 1849, which provided for public education through a system of common schools, teacher certification has been a major concern of California's educational system. From humble beginnings in 1851¹ in which the state legislature authorized the superintending school committee, now known as the board of school trustees, to examine teachers for certificates to teach, teacher certification has developed into an elaborate system involving some fifty types of credentials and certificates authorizing the holders to carry on various activities in the public schools of the state. Three general types of credentials and certificates are issued: those in the administrative field for superintendents, principals, supervisors of schools; those in the instructional field for teachers; and those for the purpose of other school service such as child welfare and supervision of attendance, education and research, and health and development.

Because of the broad scope of California's present certification program and the limited space of this paper, instructional credentials and certificates only will be considered. A brief review will give an adequate picture of the situation under discussion. Instructional credentials form the bulwark of the certification system. All credentials and certificates, other than those in the instructional field and with the exception of those in health and development, demand as prerequisite a teaching credential or certificate. Credentials and certificates in health and development which authorize such professionally trained people as nurses, doctors, and dentists, to carry on their work in the public schools are, of necessity, exempt from this requirement.

CERTIFICATION AGENCIES

California has a dual system of certification. There are two certification agencies: the first, the Commission of Credentials consisting of the superintendent of public instruction and four persons appointed by him which issues state credentials and life diplomas by the authority of the State Board of Education; the second, County

¹ California, *Statutes*, 1851, Chapter 126, Article IV, Section 5 and 6, page 496.

Boards of Education which issue certificates to teach, valid within the county.

According to California law, credentials issued by the Commission of Credentials are not certificates to teach. They merely authorize County Boards of Education to issue to the holder a county certificate corresponding to the grade and scope of the credential, permitting him to teach within the county and subjects authorized by the credential. A state credential is not a certificate to teach; a county certificate must be secured. A teacher moving from one county to another, although he holds a state credential, must obtain a new county certificate issued by the County Board of Education in the county to which he moves.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

The early development of Certification in California covering the period from 1849-1880 is full of interest and significance. The first school law and the earliest development in the certification of teachers, the establishment of the normal school in 1862, the organization of the University of California, and the first steps in state centralization prior to 1870, all play a prominent part. Then came the San Francisco Certification Scandal which resulted in the revised laws of 1880. The gross charges that examination questions for obtaining teacher certificates were bought and sold were climaxed by an appearance in the San Francisco *Evening Bulletin* of November 28, 1878 of the complete set of examination questions that were to have been given in a teachers' examination on the following day. The city editor of the *Bulletin* declared he had posed as a teacher and had obtained the set of questions, wishing to verify the rumors concerning fraud in examinations. As a direct result of this, general confidence was lost in the current methods of certifying teachers. The school law of 1880,² in accordance with the new constitution of 1879,³ took practically all power of certification away from the State Board of Education, a thing for which California educators had worked over a long period of years. Certification powers were put into the hands of county and city boards of education. The only power left to the State Board of Education was to grant life diplomas and educational diplomas both of which

² California, *Amendments to Political Code*, 1880, Paragraph 1521, page 29.

³ California, *Constitution*, 1879, Article IX, Paragraph 7, page 305.

could not be granted without the recommendation of a county board of education.

The first period in the development of teacher certification came to an end with the constitution of 1879 and the School laws of 1880. The latter date marked the beginning of the present system.

Following 1880 the development in the elementary and secondary fields may best be regarded separately. A significant fact in the development of elementary certification is the nature of its dual evolution. In spite of the fact that California School Law now demands a Bachelor's degree as a requirement for obtaining a state credential of elementary grade upon which county boards are required to issue a certificate to teach, it also allows county boards of education to issue to high school graduates, who successfully pass a county board examination, a certificate to teach in the elementary schools of the county. Although the latter method of certification is rapidly vanishing, having been superseded by state credentials, it is still in use. In the ten-year period from 1920 to 1930, 1.92% of the elementary certificates were granted on examination.⁴

In the secondary field, development did not start until 1880, very little provision having been made for it prior to that year. Higher standards marked the development in this field. By 1901 the State had obtained control of certification in the secondary field. According to the school law of 1901,⁵ high school certification went on a credential basis. The State Board of Education was authorized to prescribe by general rule the credential upon which county boards of education might grant certificates to teach in the high schools of the State. No credentials were to be prescribed or allowed unless in the judgment of the said Board they were equivalent to a diploma of graduation from the University of California, were satisfactory evidence that the holder had taken an amount of pedagogy equivalent to the minimum amount prescribed by the said Board, and included a recommendation from the faculty of the institution in which the pedagogical work was taken. By 1906, a fifth year of training was required for high school certification for all new teachers preparing for secondary school work. This higher standard was brought about by the expansion of the school system. In 1902 by the amendment of the State Constitution,⁶ high schools were given

⁴ Davis, Gilbert J., *County Examination and Certification of Teachers in California*. Unpublished M.A. Thesis, Stanford University, 1931, page 55.

⁵ California, *Statutes* 1901, Chapter 229, Section 1521, page 668.

⁶ California, *Constitution*, 1879, Article IX, Section 6.

state financial support. This naturally brought about a great increase in the number of high schools in the State, and a greater demand for more broadly trained teachers. The first step in an attempt to produce more adequately trained secondary school teachers was made by the University of California. This institution announced in 1902 that before it would give the required recommendation from the faculty to the State Board of Education for the high school certificate that it would hereafter demand the completion of one-half year's work in graduate study of at least nine semester units.⁷ This requirement was adopted by the State Board of Education in 1905.⁸ Under this regulation, theory of education or practice teaching was required in addition to the half year of graduate work. The State Board regulation did not require that all work be taken at the same institution; it must have been done in institutions approved by the State Board. As a substitute for the above graduate study requirements, the completion of twenty months of successful teaching either in the elementary or secondary school was acceptable.

A revision of the rules for high school certification was submitted to the State Board in December 1905.⁹ From this the Board subsequently adopted the regulation that high school credentials would be issued only to candidates who had completed one year of graduate study in a recognized university in addition to the Bachelor's degree. One half of the graduate year was to be spent in academic study, the other half in pedagogical work. In lieu of the pedagogical study candidates could still submit evidence that they were graduates of a recognized normal school or had completed twenty months of successful teaching in either elementary or secondary schools. Thus experienced teachers could still be certificated to teach in high schools upon completion of only a half year of graduate study. By requiring a fifth year of training as a basic requirement for all new teachers preparing for secondary school work California established itself as one of the leaders in high school certification standards. It is true that these regulations left some loop-holes through which "experienced teachers" might qualify, but most of these have been gradually eliminated. At the present time the high school certificate most widely used is the one issued on the general secondary creden-

⁷ University of California, *Register* 1901-02, page 91.

⁸ Minutes, State Board of Education, *Western Journal of Education*, Vol. 10, Feb. 1905, page 120.

⁹ *Ibid*, Vol. 11, Jan. 1906, pages 59-60.

tial which allows the holder to teach any or all subjects in any secondary school. This credential requires five years of training. In addition to this there is also issued the junior high school credential for teaching in the junior high school based upon four years of training; special secondary credentials authorizing the teaching of specified subjects in the secondary schools, usually based upon four years of training; and the junior college credential which requires a Master's or Doctor's degree valid for teaching in the two years of the junior college. A person holding a general secondary credential, however, is certified to teach in any of the areas covered by the other credentials in the secondary field.

PRESENT STANDARDS AND REQUIREMENTS FOR OBTAINING STATE CREDENTIALS¹⁰

The minimum general standards for credentials issued by the State Board of Education through the Commission of Credentials is very definitely prescribed in the School Law.

1. *The general secondary school credential* valid for teaching any or all subjects in any secondary or elementary school.¹¹ Candidates who wish to obtain this credential must complete five years of university or college or of university, college and normal school education of present day standards, or equivalent qualifications.

2. *The general junior high school credential* valid for teaching any or all subjects in the seventh, eighth and ninth grades in any elementary or secondary school. Candidates for this credential must complete four years of collegiate training, including a Bachelor's degree and prescribed professional training, or equivalent qualifications.

3. *The general elementary credential* valid for teaching any or all subjects in the elementary school. Candidates for this credential must complete four years of collegiate training, including a Bachelor's degree and prescribed professional training, or equivalent qualifications.

4. *The kindergarten-primary credential* valid for teaching in the kindergarten and any or all subjects in the first three grades of any elementary school. Candidates for this credential must complete four years of collegiate training including a Bachelor's degree and the professional training prescribed by the State Board of Education.

5. *The special secondary credential* valid for teaching the subjects listed thereon in the secondary and elementary schools of the state. Candidates for this credential must complete as high a general standard for each of the

¹⁰ California State Department of Education, *Regulations Governing Granting of Credentials and Certificates for Public School Service in California*, Bulletin, June 15, 1935, pages 62-63.

¹¹ After December 31, 1936, the general secondary credential will be valid for teaching any or all subjects in the secondary school and in the seventh and eighth grades of the elementary school.

different subjects as conditions at the time will warrant. At the present time this standard is set as four years of college work with a Bachelor's degree except in specific vocational subjects.

6. *The special elementary credential* valid for teaching the subjects listed thereon in the elementary schools. Candidates for this credential must complete work equivalent to that for the general elementary credential.

7. *The junior college credential* valid for teaching any or all subjects in the two years of the junior college. Candidates for this credential must be holders of a Master's or Doctor's degree including professional training prescribed by the State Board of Education.

8. *Special secondary credential in adult education* valid for teaching day and evening classes for adults in the field and subjects designated in the credential. Candidates for this credential must submit a recommendation from an employing school official that the credential be granted to fill a specific position. Standards for this credential range from high school graduation to three years of university or college training, or the equivalent.

9. *Emergency credentials* valid for a limited period of time on the request from an employing school official that there is a specific position to be filled and no certificated employee available to fill it. This practice is being very much discouraged.

10. *Life diplomas* valid for serving for life in the public schools in the capacities specified in said diplomas. Candidates for a life diploma must have had forty-eight months of successful teaching experience, twenty-one of which must have been in public schools of California. The service specified by the life diploma is that specified in a legal county certificate issued at least one year prior to the granting of the diploma. Candidates must be recommended by three-fourths of the county board of education of the county in which they are rendering service.

In addition to the above requirements all teachers are required to pass an examination or take a course in Principals and Provisions of the Constitution and take an oath of allegiance. All candidates for California Credentials and Certificates must also be citizens of the United States. A person who has merely declared his intention to become a citizen may secure only a limited credential until he has become fully naturalized. No one who has not attained the age of eighteen may teach in California. A certificate from a recognized physician certifying that the candidate is physically and mentally competent to render effective service in the public schools must also be presented.

Under the plan now in effect, credentials are issued only upon specific recommendations from approved teacher training institutions. All candidates for credentials must have the backing of a recognized institution. This makes the institution, not the state, responsible for the training and qualifications of the prospective teacher.

The basic requirements for each credential are set by the State Board of Education. Teacher training institutions are privileged to build their own programs upon the minimum state requirements.

Credentials are not issued directly through the State Department of education except in emergency situations. Certificates, life diplomas, and credentials, issued outside of California are not valid in California.

CRITICAL EVALUATION AND SUGGESTIONS

Although California has a high standard of training prescribed for the teachers of her public schools, the certification system is not beyond criticism. There appear to be several very undesirable features. A brief survey of what seem to be the most apparent ones follows. These suggestions are not cure-alls but are offered as means for constructive improvement.

1. *Blanket Certification.* California has a system of issuing general credentials and certificates which entitle the holder to teach any or all subjects in the grades authorized by the document concerned. The widest range has been given to the general secondary credential. This credential has been made valid from the first grade through the junior college. As a result teachers trained for secondary work are often found in the elementary school and many high school teachers are attempting to instruct in as many as five or six different fields. Without a doubt there is urgent necessity for change. One forward step has been taken in this direction in that after December 31, 1936 a general secondary credential will be valid only in the secondary school and the seventh and eighth grades of the elementary school. This should only be the beginning of such revision. The junior high school, general secondary, and special secondary credentials should be eliminated. In their place should be substituted one secondary credential of the "broad fields" type. A "broad fields" type secondary credential would embody the following desirable features:

a. It would include only one type of teaching certificate with a range from junior high school through junior college.

b. Different amounts of training would be required for the various grade levels. For example, a Master's degree would be required for junior college.

c. Teaching could be done only in the field in which the holder had training.

d. Renewal would be dependent upon professional growth as well as experience.

2. *County Examinations.* When California points with pride to the fact that it has one of the highest standards in the United States for teacher certification it often forgets or only mentions in a whisper the fact that it still retains the county examination by which graduates of high schools can still obtain an elementary certificate good in any elementary school in the county. After teaching on this for forty-eight months such persons are eligible for the life diploma good anywhere in the state. This makes California have not only the highest standards, but also the lowest. This method of certification should be abandoned as soon as possible.

3. *County Certificates.* The State should retain the sole authority to certificate. County certificates, as such, have outgrown their usefulness. State credentials should become certificates to teach thus eliminating the necessity of county certificates.

4. *The Life Diploma.* The life diploma as it now exists might best be eliminated. Under the new plan of certification presented in the secondary field renewal is partially dependent upon professional growth. The life diploma as it now exists would defeat this purpose as it allows life certification with no further training required at the end of forty-eight months of teaching. A type of certification that ignores professional growth does not fit in with the modern educational program.

5. *Emergency Credentials.* Emergency credentials may be granted for a limited period upon the request of an employing school official to persons who do not meet full requirements, when no qualified candidate is seemingly available for a specific position. There is no reason for such a credential when there is an oversupply of trained teachers such as exists in California today. It tends to lower standards and defeat the purpose of the laws of certification. Under present conditions it is probably best that this credential be eliminated for its use might easily become abuse.

6. *Institutional Control.* Approved teacher training institutions are allowed to formulate their own training programs, being obligated to comply with minimum state requirements only. A continuous check should be made upon such institutions, not to make them conform to rigid narrow programs, but to see that the various programs offered give the students concerned comparable training. This will tend to eliminate "credential shoppers," or those persons who

seek out the institutions with the lowest requirements. It would also remove the temptation on the part of institutions to lower standards in order to attract more students.

7. *Evaluation of the Work of the Teacher in Service.* A more adequate system of evaluating teachers in service should be devised. This is necessary in order to judge the effectiveness of the programs of certification in operation and to give a basis for revision. If the responsibility for teacher training leading to state certification is placed primarily upon the colleges and universities, they should be made responsible for the results produced. Records of teachers in service, especially for the first two years of teaching, should be maintained. Such institutions should be made responsible for the results produced in the case of their graduates.

Education Courses in State Teachers Colleges and Liberal Arts Colleges¹

FRANK A. BEU

For the last two decades there has been considerable discussion in educational circles relative to education courses in state teachers colleges and liberal arts colleges. People associated with liberal arts colleges have often contended that the teachers colleges' education courses emphasize pedagogy and methodology at the expense of the subject matter dealing with psychology and education. The persons connected with teachers colleges, on the other hand, have thought that the courses in education in liberal arts colleges deal too much with the subject matter and not enough with the methods of teaching the different subjects.

This paper will deal with education courses as found in the catalogs of 152 state teachers colleges and 248 liberal arts colleges and universities. Normal schools have not been considered in this study, for they are rapidly changing into teachers colleges. In the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools there are 79 public teacher-education institutions, only 2 of which are listed as normal schools; all the others are state teachers colleges, giving four years of work in preparing teachers for the elementary schools and the high schools. It may be stated further that this brief study of educational courses in these two types of institutions is not devoted to one state, nor to one section of the United States. This fact is mentioned because people are often prone to think of the institution with which they are most familiar, and to which the data under discussion may not apply.

One of the first things that stood out in this survey is the similarity in the titles, numbers of courses, and kinds of courses offered. Sixty-three colleges offer what is known as an introductory course in education. Of these, 41 were teachers colleges and 22, liberal arts colleges. The commonest title is "An Introduction to Education"; other titles for practically the same course are "An Introduction to Teaching," or "An Introduction to the History of Education." The liberal arts colleges still cling to courses in the history of education, whereas very few such courses are found in the teachers colleges.

¹ Read before the Annual Meeting of the Illinois Associations of Collegiate Registrars, October, 1936.

Among colleges which do not fall under this generalization, such institutions as The University of Chicago, Columbia University, and others offer a compromise course and call it "The School in the Social Order"; and, as a sort of third cousin to "An Introduction to Education," courses in "Comparative Education" are found in a few liberal arts colleges and a few teachers colleges.

In all these institutions such courses serve somewhat the same purpose. They attempt to inform the students what has happened in education up to the present time.

The year of study in which these courses are given varies with the two types of institutions. The teachers colleges offer "An Introduction to Education" as a freshman course, whereas liberal arts colleges give it as a sophomore or junior course, most of them in the junior year. The reason for this practice is clear. Many teachers colleges still have two-year curriculums. Until the last decade many of the liberal arts colleges prepared only high school teachers, and did not attempt to include educational courses required by law in the curriculum of their prospective teachers until the junior year. In recent years there has been a change. As pointed out by Kelley and McNeely² in their study of higher institutions of learning in ten states, 75 per cent of the colleges and universities in these states were, according to their catalogs, training teachers for the elementary schools. Some of these institutions are now offering education courses to their freshman students.

The second type of educational course found in most institutions of both types is a course in educational psychology. The chief difference is that whereas the liberal arts colleges offer one two- or three-semester hour course the teachers colleges offer two courses of the value of four or six semester hours. Likewise, the teachers colleges usually require one course in educational psychology, while in the liberal arts colleges and universities such courses are elective. Courses in pure psychology are found only in the large teachers colleges, large liberal arts colleges, and universities. The reason seems obvious. Those institutions have the laboratory equipment and money to carry on such work as it should be done.

The third course found in 100 per cent of the teachers colleges and in about 70 per cent of the liberal arts colleges is practice teaching.

² Kelley, Fred J., and McNeely, John H., *The State and Higher Education*. Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching in Cooperation with the United States Office of Education, 1933.

The teachers colleges are undoubtedly influenced by the standard of the American Association of Teachers Colleges, which requires ninety clock hours of practice teaching. Another influence is the requirement of the certification laws. In Illinois this requirement is five semester hours.

Closely related to practice teaching are special methods courses. These are found in 80 per cent of the teachers colleges and in only about 40 per cent of the liberal arts colleges. They are taught by education teachers, subject matter teachers, and critic teachers. These courses have declined in number and are being replaced by special method courses for related subject fields. For example, methods courses are offered in science, rather than individually in chemistry, zoology, botany, and physics.

There is considerable disagreement as to the content of special methods courses. This content varies according to the institution in which it is taught. The general consensus of opinion is that special methods courses should be listed as education courses rather than as subject matter courses.

A fourth type of course found in both institutions deals with tests and measurements. Sixty-five per cent of the teachers colleges give this course, whereas only 44 per cent of the liberal arts colleges offer it. It is rather surprising how closely this agrees with the percentage of liberal arts college graduates who enter teaching.³ A study by Jacob G. Meyer indicates that, out of 156 liberal arts colleges with enrolments of less than 1,000, over 45 per cent of the graduates entered the teaching profession. Practically all the teachers colleges require a course in tests and measurements for a four-year student; most liberal arts colleges give it as an elective. Only 5 per cent of the teachers colleges require such a course in a two-year curriculum.

About 60 per cent of the teachers colleges and liberal arts colleges give a course in the principles of education. Certain types of education courses are given more frequently in the liberal arts colleges than in the teachers colleges. More liberal arts colleges than teachers colleges offer a senior course dealing with the philosophy of education. In 90 per cent of the cases, this course is elective in both types of institutions. One mid-western liberal arts college with an enrolment of less than 700 students offers 15 distinct courses in philosophy.

³ Meyer, Jacob G., *Small College and Teacher Training*. P. 162, Bloomington: Public School Publishing Company, 1928.

Courses in the administration of the high school are given more frequently in liberal arts colleges and in departments of education in universities than in teachers colleges. In the teachers colleges a course in "Classroom Management" holds a somewhat similar position. Thirty-seven per cent of the teachers colleges offer such a course; 20 per cent require it in the four-year curriculum.

A course in abnormal psychology or social psychology is more frequently found in liberal arts colleges than in teachers colleges. Likewise, courses in education dealing with extra-curricular activities and mental hygiene are found more frequently in liberal arts colleges than in the teachers college in the ratio of 3-2.

In all the 400 institutions included in this study there were 89 different titles or types of courses in education. Some were found in only one institution, while others were found in 10 to 15 per cent of the institutions.

The second phase of this subject concerns the numbers of such courses in liberal arts and teachers colleges. The range of numbers in 248 liberal arts colleges and universities was from 3 to 89. In the 152 teachers colleges, numbers ranged from 6 to 72. The median numbers were 12 and 15, respectively. The teachers colleges, as one would expect, stress education a little more and require more specific courses in education than do the liberal arts colleges and universities. The median required number of semester hours in a teacher preparatory course is 18 in teachers colleges, and in liberal arts colleges, 15. These institutions follow rather closely the requirements of the various accrediting associations, which are as follows: The North Central Association specifies 15 hours; the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools requires 12; and the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States stipulates 12.

There has been a definite attempt within recent years to reach some kind of uniformity as to titles of courses containing the same content in both types of institutions. Likewise there has been a definite movement to reduce the number of separate courses covered in an institution. Five years ago the late President Lord asked a professor of education in a university in which over 100 courses in education were offered: "What is the difference in your three courses, except the titles?" His answer was: "I teach in a different room." This institution has since reduced the number of its courses to 54.

In the last decade, both the state teachers colleges and the liberal arts colleges have changed the contents, the numbers, and the types of education courses offered, with the result that in both kinds of institutions there is provision for basic professional work in practice teaching, education, psychology, special methods, and courses in administration.

A brief summary based upon these findings indicates that the differences in the courses of education in teachers colleges and liberal arts colleges are not so great as many people believe. First of all, the teachers colleges are specialized institutions with one type of service as their aim: the preparation of teachers; whereas 60 per cent of the liberal arts colleges regard this objective as only one of their purposes and the other 40 per cent make no definite attempt to give students the required course for certification. They do give a general education, which very often includes education courses. In many instances these education courses are not the ones specified by law for that particular state. Some of the most recent laws for certification include such subjects as political science, sociology, co-operative buying, American history, civics, farm mechanics, etc. The subject matter courses in a teachers college are more likely to be professionalized in character than those in the liberal arts colleges. Now it is immediately granted that in some cases there is likely to be greater difference among the teachers colleges themselves than between teachers colleges and liberal arts colleges. In other words, some liberal arts colleges are becoming teachers colleges and some teachers colleges are becoming liberal arts colleges.

The last point of difference between teachers colleges and liberal arts colleges relative to education courses is the accrediting of practice teaching. Some teachers colleges do not give credit for so-called courses in practice teaching, which upon examination, prove not to have been practice teaching. The following recent example is taken from the Eastern Illinois State Teachers College: Case #1: A boy desired practice teaching credit for a course which was really one in methods. He did not receive credit for practice teaching. Case #2: A student had a credit listed as practice teaching. Checking with the student showed that she aided other students in a college class in algebra in which she was a student. The instructor called it remedial teaching, which was correct, but it really was private tutoring. No credit for practice teaching should be allowed in such an instance. The third type of activity for which some institutions

allow credit is the experience of actual classroom teaching: that is, students go to an institution of learning for a year, pass a teacher's examination, and teach for several years. Then they return to an institution and want credit for practice teaching. Such work cannot count for practice teaching, for the very obvious reason that accrediting agencies do not permit it.

Definite standards and requirements have been set up by accrediting associations for practice teaching. In order to receive credit for such work in a teacher-education institution, whether a teachers college or a liberal arts college, a student should have 90 clock hours of supervised teaching under the direct control of the institution. Such teaching should be done in the grade or subject in which he wishes to teach. The conditions under which practice teaching is done must approximate those in which the student will later teach. Practice teaching opportunities should be available in more than one grade or one subject. Students should actually do practice teaching for more than 50 per cent of the ninety clock hours.

Disabled Readers at Dartmouth College

ROBERT M. BEAR

Not many years ago considerable skepticism would certainly have been aroused by a statement that the elementary school was perhaps the most important preparatory agency for the average college. All that was implied was that some of the basic skills and concepts of elementary education were coming to be regarded as more fundamental for success in colleges with their great freedom of course election than some of the traditional entrance requirements, assuming of course, adequate maturity and intelligence. Experience of the last decade plus certain changes in the colleges themselves with respect to the amount of supplementary reference work required have rendered this implication more tangible, especially in the case of reading ability. It is the purpose of this paper to touch on three general types of problems with which a remedial program in reading must come to grips and to suggest the line of procedure projected at Dartmouth with respect to them. This discussion presupposes a commitment to a policy of attempting as far as is practicable to aid any disabled reader, not just those who have run afoul of academic entanglements or who are wanted merely for purposes of experimentation and research.

The adoption of such a policy beginning with this session had behind it six years of successful work by Professor Bailor, Chairman of the Psychology Department, in "speeded reading" with volunteer groups of both freshmen and upperclassmen. The results of this effort seemed to justify the expansion of the program so as to reach the large majority of inefficient readers while they were still freshmen. To this end a plan is being tried in which one member of this Department now has four-fifths of his time allocated to the work. One of the features of the arrangement is that remedial instruction is now offered to those who most need it with the beginning of their college life.

One of the first problems is to determine with some precision what proportion of students as well as which particular individuals may be classed as deficient in reading. Differences in entrance requirements, courses prescribed after entrance, the degree of freedom allowed in election, amount of supplementary reading required in individual courses as well as the average for such in the institution

as a whole, all have a bearing. If the attempt is made to determine the defective readers through the use of existing reading tests, not only must the above factors enter into the interpretation of the results but the nature and content of the test itself introduces another set of variables.

Samples of published studies are illustrative. Of 437 freshmen at Miami University tested in a recent year with the Shank Reading Test one-third were reported as being unable to read as well as the average pupil in the tenth grade.¹ Of the freshmen of the Teachers College of the University of Nebraska, 18 per cent scored below the 10th grade level on the Whipple High School and College Reading Test.² From an entering class of 477 students, 104, having a percentile ranking of 20 or below on the verbal section of the Scholastic Aptitude Test at Smith College in 1932, were given the Iowa Silent Reading Test. This group in rate of reading had an average which was "equivalent to the ninth month of the eighth grade according to the norms," while in comprehension they averaged normal.³ On the other hand, a psychologist at Mount Holyoke writes that, according to the indices of standardized tests, only 2 per cent of the freshmen should have remedial work although the proportion actually encountering difficulty is larger than this.⁴ A final illustration may be taken from a study of the rate of reading by means of the Booker Test of Achievement in Silent Reading given to freshmen at the University of Chicago in 1930. Although the average number of words read per minute was 221 on this test, 10 per cent of the class read 150 words per minute or slower. It was recommended that the lowest acceptable minimum rate should be considered as 180 to 200 words per minute.⁵ On the basis of this study, Booker himself is led to say that approximately 10 per cent of the Chicago freshmen are seriously handicapped in rate, comprehension, and vocabulary, while as many more have marked deficiencies in one or two of these factors.⁶

¹ Guiler, W. S., "Background Deficiencies," *Journal of Higher Education* III (October, 1932), pp. 369-372.

² Thompson, W. H., "An Experiment in Remedial Reading," *School and Society*, 34 (August 1, 1931), pp. 156-158.

³ Blake, M. B., and Dearborn, W. F., "The Improvement of Reading Habits," *Journal of Higher Education*, VI (February, 1935), pp. 83-88.

⁴ Moore, Herbert, "Teaching College Freshmen to Read," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 18 (October, 1934), pp. 631-634.

⁵ Reeves, F. W., Peik, W. E., and Russell, J. D., "Remedial Work in Reading at the Freshman Level," *Instructional Problems in the University*, University of Chicago Survey, IV, 1933, pp. 146-155.

One of the first tasks, therefore, in the establishment of a systematic remedial program is the collection of data for the particular student-body involved and the determination of the indices which for it distinguish varying grades of reading ability. This we are engaged in doing at Dartmouth at the present time. Among the tests given to freshmen at the opening of the session was the Iowa Silent Reading Test. Of 617 men only 5.5 per cent scored at the 20 percentile or below according to the Iowa norms in comprehension, while in rate 11 per cent were at or below this rank. The sub-test on which the Iowa authors base their rate score was re-scored by us in terms of words read per minute, a most useful concept both with students and faculty. The score for the 15 percentile for our institution on this basis is 185 words per minute.

Our trial selection for reading instruction in the first half-semester of the college course included those students below the 20 percentile in comprehension according to Iowa norms and also in the lowest fifth of their class on the American Council Scholastic Aptitude Test, those below the Iowa 20 percentile in both comprehension and rate, and those below the Iowa 15 percentile in rate. We need, however, to ascertain whether it may not be usual for those beyond certain critical high levels of intelligence but who are slow readers to adjust their own reading habits to meet the demands made upon them by extensive reading assignments in regular courses. Further tests have been and will be given, and other criteria will be sought by which those most in need of remedial work may be identified at the opening of the session.

Another type of difficulty in the inauguration of remedial work arises from lack of sufficient information about the causes of reading deficiency. Not only is this lack in evidence when we consider the individual students to be aided, but some disagreement even exists among those who are seeking to ascertain the central factors determining efficiency in the general process itself. Yet remedial instruction of any type axiomatically should take causes of deficiency as its point of departure. It should not be implied, however, that no beneficial work can be done when an understanding of the causes is only partial any more than that medical treatment may not alleviate symptoms when the cause is obscure. The work of the last

⁶ Booker, I. A., *The Measurement and Improvement of Silent Reading Among College Freshmen*, Doctor's Dissertation, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1934, pp. 136-138.

decade in reading supplies incontrovertible evidence of its usefulness, but much more information is needed regarding causal factors and means for detecting their operation in individual cases.

Lacking final answers to these questions the remedial worker has found it helpful in practical experience to look for one or another of the following conditions in the background of the disabled reader in college: poor habits of attention, inadequacy of vocabulary, a restricted range of reading interests, a limited amount of reading previous to college entrance, inadequate intelligence, poor visual and muscular habits in reading, lack of background for college subjects, failure to develop necessary techniques in word recognition, lack of organization of thought, visual defects, and others.

Visual defects alone will receive comment since it is in respect to these that the present Dartmouth plan will likely be considered distinct from those of other institutions. Reference should be made to several studies as a means of viewing current thinking about the relation of visual defects to reading disability. It is to be noted that most of the studies deal with elementary school children rather than college students.

After thorough optometric examination of 128 second and third grade children, half of whom were normal and half poor readers, Fendrick found that while the vision of only 30 per cent of the normal readers was defective, 44 per cent of the half poor readers had impaired sight.⁷ Defects in refraction and of muscular control of the eyes might be expected to disturb both the acquisition of effective reading habits and their later operation and so are of especial interest. Farsightedness and astigmatism have been reported in a somewhat higher percentage of reading disability cases than among the normal in two studies.⁸ In the survey of the Smith College freshmen cited above, a higher proportion of poor readers was found to be farsighted, and a higher proportion of the good to be both nearsighted and astigmatic.

The fact that both of these ocular conditions are found in many normal readers who apparently compensate, only further serves to illustrate the difficulty of specifying the causes of poor reading. As for muscular imbalance, which Selzer regarded as characterizing

⁷ Fendrick, P., *Visual Characteristics of Poor Readers*, Teachers College, Columbia University Press, 1935.

⁸ *Ibid.* See also Eames, T. H., "A Comparison of the Ocular Characteristics of Unselected and Reading Disability Groups," *Journal of Educational Research*, 25 (March, 1932), pp. 211-215.

disabled readers and which he found in over 90 per cent of them,⁹ it is reliably reported that an imbalance or heterophoria is "found in at least 80 per cent of thousands of healthy persons" without refractive defects.¹⁰ It is not surprising then that the results of Fendrick in the study previously cited and those of a more recent comparison of 130 children with low reading test scores with 100 good readers, do not show a significantly higher amount of imbalance among the former than among the latter.¹¹ A similar conclusion was reached from the results of the Smith College study. Although this proves to be generally the case, it cannot be said or inferred that muscular malfunctioning has not interfered with the development of effective reading habits of some individuals.

A third type of defect, aniseikonia, an inequality in the relative size and shape of the ocular images of the two eyes "as they are produced in the brain," has only recently been measured and recognized as frequently present in cases of reading disability.¹² Pioneer work in this has been done by the Department of Research in Physiological Optics of the Dartmouth Medical School. The ordinary visual examination neither detects the defect nor, because of this failure in cases which have the defect, does it afford the basis for a full refractive correction.

From these brief side-lights on current investigation of the relation between these and other visual defects and reading disability, it is clear that much more knowledge is needed. To this it is hoped that the work at Dartmouth will contribute, for, beside concern for the other psychological and pedagogical "causes," especially effective checks are being set up for the defects of vision.

Through the co-operation of the Clinic maintained by the Department of Research in Physiological Optics, a survey examination of the vision of each freshman is to be made during the first week or two of the college session; and those seriously defective will be notified so that they may be more completely examined and corrections

⁹ Selzer, C. A., *Lateral Dominance and Visual Fusion*, Harvard Monographs in Education, No. 12, Harvard University Press, 1933, p. 86.

¹⁰ Bielschowsky, A., "Functional Disturbances of the Eyes," *Archives of Ophthalmology*, 15 (April, 1936), pp. 589-603.

¹¹ Witty, P. A., and Kopel, D., "Heterophoria and Reading Disability," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXVII (March, 1936), pp. 222-230.

¹² Dearborn, W. F., and Comfort, D. D., "Differences in Size and Shape of Ocular Images as Related to Defects in Reading." A preliminary report of a more extensive study and found in the *Third Annual Research Bulletin*, National Conference on Research in Elementary School English, June, 1935, pp. 5-6.

recommended for their defects. Although the latter in most cases are at the expense of the student, experience thus far has shown most of them able and willing to avail themselves of the service. During the current year it was not possible to complete all the survey examinations within the limits of the opening weeks. All students were given an abbreviated examination and photographs were made of their eye movements in reading by the Ophthalm-O-Graph, a portable camera devised for this purpose. The remainder of the survey examinations, including a check on aniseikonia, have subsequently been given. As a result of these and the tests of reading it will be possible to make various comparative studies bearing on the problems in the field.

More important, however, is the fact that those students deficient in reading because of visual disability will have this handicap removed. Does this mean that the correction of the defects without remedial instruction following will suffice to enable an individual to become a normal reader? Some evidence for this has been presented.¹³ Whether this is or is not to be expected, and under what conditions, in the case of college students we should be able to secure data for answer.

On the other hand, the conduct of our remedial instruction has become more effective because visual disability has been eliminated as a possible primary factor although in such cases, functional deficiencies resulting from them may remain for psychological and pedagogical correction.

A final type of problem in initiating remedial work involves the nature of the instructional program. Of course, there are many administrative difficulties to be met in putting any form of program into operation but attention here is directed only to the question of the general nature of what is to be undertaken.

Although not highly discriminative, reading deficiencies have very commonly in practice been catalogued as either those of comprehension or those of rate. Some years ago it was felt that comprehension and rate were rather highly correlated but more recent studies show absence of a high correspondence.¹⁴ Furthermore, it is to be noted that college remedial programs which have placed their main em-

¹³ Eames, T. H., "Improvement in Reading Following the Correction of Eye Defects of Non-Readers," *American Journal of Ophthalmology*, XVII (April, 1934), pp. 324-325.

¹⁴ Traxler, A. E., "The Correlation Between Reading Rate and Comprehension," *Journal of Educational Research*, 26 (October, 1932), pp. 97-101.

phasis upon improving comprehension find the gain largely limited to that, rate being little affected. Those that have chiefly emphasized improvement of the latter usually have secured its improvement without significant loss in comprehension but also without significant gain. A few remedial programs have emphasized each and secured results in proportion to their relative emphases. These facts would suggest that it is better to make a decision as to which shall receive the major attention with any group of disabled readers.

It was noted in the first part of this paper that the outstanding deficiency of Smith freshmen was in rate and not in comprehension. Also at the University of Chicago analysis of the results of tests of their students was interpreted as indicating that the handicap was more often one of slow rate than lack of power of interpretation. At Dartmouth according to test scores, twice as many were low in rate as in comprehension. Research has shown that greater efficiency in rate of reading¹⁵ is the determining factor in the superiority of good readers at least in reading tests. From these facts the suggestion has been made that, in an institution like Dartmouth with a selective system of admissions, improvement in rate is the greatest need of the majority of disabled readers.

It has been amply demonstrated in a number of different institutions that only a small number of practice periods is needed to produce substantial improvement in rate of reading. We are at present experimenting with the plan of having remedial groups meet twice a week for a total of from ten to twelve sixty-minute practice periods each. In this way several new groups can be formed during each half-semester and a considerable number of students reached in the course of a year. With the majority of these groups the emphasis is and will continue to be placed upon the improvement of rate. At the same time we plan to try variations of different types, for example, in the number of practice periods, the content of instruction and techniques, attempting to check permanence of possible improvement in the different cases.

¹⁵ Robinson, F. P., and McCollom, F. H., "Reading Rate and Comprehension Accuracy as Determinants of Reading Test Scores," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 25 (February, 1934), pp. 154-157.

The College Representative in the High School¹

ARTHUR F. SOUTHWICK

The source of information for this discussion is the result of a questionnaire entitled "The Selection of Your College," which was submitted to a class of 305 college freshmen—150 boys and 155 girls. The group represents 193 high schools and academies in 21 states and 5 foreign countries. Ohio high schools furnished 60 per cent of the group; Wayne County schools, 8 per cent.

The questionnaire was given to the students during an orientation conference, without detailed explanation, as one of three personnel record forms. The other two forms were the Strong Vocational Interest Blank and a supplementary vocational information questionnaire. A partial verification of results was made possible by checking a number of items of information which had been called for previously in the applications for admission. Much of the information is too general to warrant specific conclusions; nevertheless, the results as a whole contain suggestive implications on questions involved in college field work.

Within these limitations, then, let us consider the students' replies with reference to the following questions:

1. How widely do students investigate colleges or universities before making their selections?
2. What reasons do these students give for selecting this college?
3. What persons were influential in their selection?
4. To what extent did these students apply for admission or for financial assistance elsewhere?
5. What has been their experience with college representatives?
6. Do they favor a college study group in the high school?
7. How can the representative best serve the college prospect through the college study group?

BREADTH OF INVESTIGATION

To what extent have the 305 students investigated colleges? Of the entire group, 20 per cent state that Wooster was their only consideration and 54 per cent say that they made a systematic study of

¹ An extract from the discussion before the Ohio College Field Secretaries Association at Denison University, Granville, Ohio, on October 30, 1936.

several institutions. In the replies on the number of colleges which were studied, the most frequent is 4. When asked to name the colleges that were definitely considered, the students list more than 100 institutions, from Harvard to the University of California. More than 100 students state that they made their selection in part through the study of catalogs and other literature. Again, 4 is the most frequent number of colleges so compared, although one student reports 30 and two report 20. One-third of the class reports a close decision between Wooster and another institution. In this competition, 40 colleges and universities are named.

During recent years there has been increasing tendency of students and parents to visit colleges. This is as it should be. In this instance, 58 per cent of the class report such visits to an average of 3.5 colleges. One girl had visited 15. Perhaps she is a field agent's daughter. A visit to Wooster before registration day is reported by 68 per cent of the class. Of the Ohio students, 76 per cent report visiting this campus; for the out-of-state students, the percentage is 59.

To summarize this point on breadth of student investigation of colleges, 20 per cent of the Wooster entrants considered this college only; 50 per cent selected the college after comparing it carefully with three others; 35 per cent narrowed the field down to two before making the final choice. Two-thirds of the class looked the college over in person before arrival on registration day.

REASONS FOR CHOICE

The following table classifies the reasons for the choice of this college, as given by the students. Column I shows the percentage

CLASSIFICATION OF REASONS FOR SELECTION OF WOOSTER

REASON GIVEN	PERCENTAGE OF ENTIRE CLASS	PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS WHO MADE FINAL CHOICE FROM TWO COLLEGES
Standing or Reputation of the College	33	16
Alumni or Present Students.....	25	—
Atmosphere and Ideals.....	14	22
Proximity or Location.....	13	10
Size.....	7	9
Equipment.....	3	—
Financial Aid or Employment.....	2	17
Cost.....	2	6
Literature.....	2	—
Courses Offered.....	—	9
Decision of Parents or Relatives....	—	9

of the entire number (305) giving such reasons in their admission forms; column II shows the percentage of the special group (115) who give determining reasons for choosing Wooster in a final comparison with another institution.

PERSONS INFLUENCING SELECTION

The foregoing classification of reasons is only part of the story, and, doubtless, the least tangible. Students select a college to a great extent on the basis of what a friend or acquaintance says about it. When these students (305) were asked to check the persons who were influential in their decision, the results summarize as follows: parents, 52 per cent; an alumnus of the college, 45 per cent; a friend, 28 per cent; the college representative, 20 per cent; minister, 14 per cent; high-school principal, 7 per cent. There are duplications in this classification and in the vote for the representative there are included some instances in which the contact was made on the campus.

ADMISSION OR AID APPLIED FOR AT OTHER INSTITUTIONS

In the replies to questions on application for admission or aid made to other colleges or universities, the most significant and disappointing information is that the percentage of students who were promised aid without written application exceeds the percentage of students who made application for admission elsewhere and, also, the percentage of students granted aid elsewhere on written application. The percentages are as follows: promised aid without written application, 39 per cent; applied for admission elsewhere, 23 per cent; promised aid on written application, 34 per cent. It is possible that some of the aid reported by the students represents only wishful thinking in retrospect. It also may be true that some of the students had in mind automatic scholarships given by some colleges. With due regard, however, for these chances of error, the record reflects no credit on the way scholarship and student-aid grants are apparently handed out in some areas where competition is keen.

COLLEGE REPRESENTATIVES

The students were asked to report on the calls made by college representatives. Of the entire group, 46 per cent report home calls; 20 per cent report that some representatives called upon them

twice; 9 per cent report three calls, and 5 per cent report four calls. The value of these calls might well be questioned. If you define high-pressure college salesmanship as two home calls or more, then one-third of this class was subjected to such salesmanship by one or more institutions.

The questionnaire called for comments, favorable or critical, on calls of the college representatives (1) at home and (2) at school. One hundred thirty-two students, or more than 40 per cent of the class, recorded their reactions. Eighty-one vote favorably for the representatives without drawing a distinction between the home and the school calls; 26 vote unfavorably on the calls without distinction; 25 vote in favor of school calls and against home calls; and 2 vote in favor of the home visit against the school visit.

The following comments are typical: "One representative was an interesting talker, well-groomed and thus influential. The other was slovenly and tended to draw interest from the college"; "Representative of ——— College poor speaker. Representative of ——— also a little too insistent and stayed too long. However, he was nice"; "It seems more like drafting"; "Lady very nice. Man too persistent"; "Ones who called at my home denounced all other colleges except their own"; "I did not like the idea of the representative coming to my home two or three times"; "Once at school wasn't so bad"; "Had heart to heart talk with them and each one of them seemed to have the best school"; "A home discussion is far better. Not so bothersome"; "Very interesting and educating"; "Some of them want to sell their school even to the point of degrading another school or suggesting easy courses."

COLLEGE STUDY CLUBS

One part of the questionnaire deals with college days, college weeks, and college clubs. Eighteen students, mostly from Ohio, say they got some help from a college day. Five, all out-of-state boys, mention the college week, and 9 say that they had the advantages of a college club. Fifty-five per cent of the class think that a college club would have been helpful to them, while only 2 per cent vote against the proposal.

A check list of problems that troubled the students before they came to college suggests ample material for study and discussion by such a club. In order of importance to the students, they are as follows: total expenses, college standing, uncertainty about life-

work, tuition, opportunities for self-help, vocational curriculum, liberal versus specialized training, distance from home, and admission requirements. The list contained 15 items, but only those that were assigned a rank by 100 or more students are considered significant. The expenses of a college course and the choice of a life-work stand out most prominently.

In a recent magazine article, Isaac F. Marcossion² says, "Youth knows what it does not want, but it does not know what it wants." "Educationally," he says, "youth is all dressed up with no place to go." He aims the latter statement directly at the student preparing for the liberal arts college. It is not the business of the college to pigeon-hole students vocationally, but the vocational information questionnaire which was submitted to this freshman class shows ground for Marcossion's criticism of the lack of vocational guidance facilities for the college-bound student. Replies of this group of 305 students show that 60 per cent of them have done nothing by way of getting vocational information or of talking seriously with anyone about their vocational interests, abilities, or opportunities. Actually less than 20 per cent have had class instruction in the field of vocations, or conferences, or the assistance of a vocational counselor in the high school. Here, then, in educational and vocational guidance for students who plan to go to college, or should go, is a vast, unexplored field.

Another phase of this problem is concerned with the guidance programs set up by colleges and secondary schools. A recent book by Dean Donfred H. Gardner,³ of the University of Akron, summarizes the personnel activities of 57 North Central Institutions. The section on college orientation gives one the impression that the colleges are spending a great deal of time on material which properly belongs in a pre-college guidance program in the secondary school. Gardner enumerates some of the titles of orientation courses that are offered. They are as follows: "The Humanities," "How to Study," "Study Methods," "Tools for College," "Personal Health," "Vocations," "Orientation in Social Science," and "College Problems." Many of these questions involve the selection of a college in terms of the student's interests and needs. For this reason, they constitute excellent material for a college study club.

² Marcossion, Isaac F., "Our Muddled Youth," *The American Magazine*, CXXII, (September, 1936).

³ Gardner, Donfred H., *Student Personnel Service*, University of Chicago Press, 1936.

In conclusion it must be said that the contribution made by the college representative to the discussions and studies carried on by a club or a class depends primarily upon four factors, as follows:

1. The representative's position on the college campus. His training, his work, and his contacts must be such as to give him first-hand knowledge and an understanding of the problems that the college freshman encounters.

2. The representative's attitude. Is it an attitude of salesmanship or an attitude of educational service? The desire for more students, or even better students, must be submerged in a sincere desire to give college information in terms of the highest welfare of the college prospect. This ideal is not as altruistic as it may appear, since the students themselves readily detect the difference between college propaganda and valid college information.

3. The confidence of the high-school principal. This is one of the most valuable assets in the public relations of any college. The response of the Ohio high-school principals to the O.C.A. Program of High School-College Integration last year is evidence of this confidence. It must not be betrayed.

4. The willingness of the principal to use the representative in the group guidance activities in his school. This follows when the first three conditions have been fulfilled. We say group guidance, because it is not likely that the representative can help much in the individual guidance program. He lacks the information on the student's interests, needs, and abilities to be of much assistance in this regard. In group guidance, the field on the orientation problems, noted above, is open. In brief, the college study club or class as already organized in many schools provides the best available means of assisting prospective college students to span the chasm that most of them face between the senior year in high school and the freshman year in college.

Comparative Aptitudes of Beginning Students in Romance Languages in 1930 and 1935

LILY DETCHEN

The aim of the romance language requirement at the University of Louisville has been to insure a reading knowledge of at least one foreign language. Failure to achieve this result under the old policy prompted the substitution of a new one. For admission to classes, this method requires achievement by examination rather than by record of "hours" fulfilled. This investigation purposes to determine the effect of the new policy on the romance language classes.

The new language regulation, adopted in 1932, requires the student to make in his chosen language, a standing on the Co-operative language test equivalent to the average standing of college sophomores throughout the country. This standing has to be achieved both in the reading score and in the total score. Some students are able to achieve the sophomore norm after two or three semesters of study; the average student requires the full four semesters; the below-average student, five or six semesters or else extramural study with a tutor. Occasionally, high school students who have three years of high school study in a language are able to qualify at the time of entrance to the College. In September, 1936, there were 35 students in a class of approximately 250 who were able to do this at the time of entrance.

With the introduction of the language qualifying examination, placement in language sections according to achievement was also begun. Upon the basis of the placement test score and regardless of the amount of high school credit earned in the language, students are placed at levels most suited to their achievement. Besides qualification and placement uses, the tests have served to establish a minimum passing mark in the languages, which is on a more objective basis than was possible formerly.

In this particular study, the effect which the above changes had had upon the classes concerned was the point in question. Accordingly the aptitude of students as measured by the American Council Psychological Examination and standardized English tests, the Columbia Research Bureau English Test in the earlier period, and the Co-operative English Test in the later period were compared

for the two periods, 1930 and 1935. It was found that some factor, ostensibly the new requirement, was bringing into the romance language classes a higher type of student. It should be stated at this point that the College has other evidence that the general level of entering freshmen has not varied since 1930. With the use of the psychological and English tests, therefore, it was demonstrated:

- (1) That groups enrolled in French and Spanish in 1930 were practically equal in both aptitude and English achievement:

	PERCENTILE EQUIVALENCE IN LOCAL GROUP	
	SPANISH	FRENCH
Mean score on psychological examination.	42	43
Sigma score on psychological examination.	28	27
Mean score on English test.....	46	45
Sigma score on English test.....	28	28

- (2) That groups enrolled in French and Spanish in 1935, while showing great improvement in general aptitude and English achievement over the 1930 groups, also showed definite differences in the two language groups:

	PERCENTILE EQUIVALENCE IN LOCAL GROUP	
	SPANISH	FRENCH
Mean score on psychological examination.	53	58
Sigma score on psychological examination.	28	28
Mean score on English test.....	52	62
Sigma score on English test.....	28	28

Accompanying the changed status of the groups was a change in the enrolment in the romance language classes, not entirely accounted for by general changes throughout the years in enrolment figures for the College. In 1930 enrolments in French and Spanish were practically equal, with 67 students in Spanish and 62 in French. In 1935, however, there were but 56 students in Spanish, as compared to 88 in French.

In summary, it may be said that during the period between 1930 and 1935 definite changes occurred in the groups enrolled in romance languages, changes which were not effective throughout the College. The changes are attributed to the new language requirement, which brought into the romance language classes a higher type of student and more students.

The Registrar's Professional Library¹

ALMA H. PREINKERT

The book list presented below is based on the recommendations of thirty leading registrars who reported those books which they had found most helpful. The list of journals and bulletins has been prepared from the report of one hundred thirty registrars in the Middle States territory, combined with the reports of the thirty registrars located in all sections of the United States.

Two groups are shown under each classification. Group I contains the publications most frequently reported, arranged in the order of their frequency. Group II is arranged alphabetically and includes material less frequently reported.

GROUP I—BOOKS

Marsh, C. S., Editor: *American Universities and Colleges*, Third Edition, 1936, 1129 p., American Council on Education, Washington, D. C., \$4.00.

Patterson, Homer L.: *American Educational Directory*, Vol. 33, 1936, American Educational Company, Chicago, 1056 p., \$6.00.

Hurt, H. W., and H. J.: *College Blue Book*, Vol. 3, 1933, College Blue Book Co., Hollywood, Fla., 576 p., \$4.75.

Sargent, Porter E. *Handbook of Private Schools for American Boys and Girls*, Vol. 20, 1936, P. E. Sargent, 11 Beacon St., Boston, Mass., 1152 p., \$6.00.

Cowley, W. H.: *Personnel Bibliographical Index*, 1932, 433 p., Ohio State University, \$4.00. (This index covers quite completely the registrar's field of interest. The annotations are particularly valuable in locating library material.)

Webster, Noah: *New International Dictionary of the English Language*, 1934, 3210 p., G. & C. Merriam Co., Springfield, Mass., \$20.00.

World Almanac and Book of Facts for 1936, 1936, Vol. 51, 952 p., N. Y. World-Telegram, \$1.00.

U. S. Official Postal Guide, 1936, Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., \$1.50.

Marquis, A. N., Editor: *Who's Who in America*, Vol. 19, 1936, 2878 p., A. N. Marquis Co., Chicago, Ill., \$8.85.

Russell, J. D., and Reeves, F. W. *Evaluation of Higher Institutions*; Vol. 6, Administration, 285 p., Vol. 7, Finance, 133 p., 1936, University of Chicago Press; Vol. 6, \$3.00, Vol. 7, \$2.00.

O'Rear, F. B. *The Duties of the Registrar*, 1925, 173 p., Missouri State Teachers College, Springfield, Mo.

¹ Presented as part of a paper to the November 28th meeting of the Middle States Association of Collegiate Registrars.

- Educational Aid Society: *College and Private School Directory of the United States*, 1932-1934, 3 Vols., 586, 586, 582 p., Educational Aid Society, Chicago, \$5.00 each volume.
- O'Dell, C. W.: *Statistical Method in Education*, 1935, 457 p., Appleton-Century Co., New York, \$3.50.
- Henderson, J. L.: *Admission to College by Certificate*, 1912, Teachers College, Columbia University, \$1.15.
- Walters, J. E.: *Individualizing Education by Means of Applied Personnel Procedures*, 1935, 278 p., Wiley & Sons, New York, \$2.50.
- Cattell, J. M.: *Leaders in Education*, 1932, 1037 p., Science Press, New York, \$10.00.
- Reeves, F. W. and Russell, J. D.: *College Organization and Administration*; a report based upon a series of surveys of church colleges, 1929, 324 p., Board of Education of Disciples of Christ, Indianapolis, Ind., \$2.50.
- Reeves, F. W. and Russell, J. D.: *Liberal Arts College*; based upon survey of 35 colleges related to the Methodist Episcopal Church, 1932, 715 p., University of Chicago Press, \$4.50.
- Reeves, F. W., Director: *University of Chicago Survey*, 1933, 12 volumes, University of Chicago Press, \$30.00 set. The titles of the 12 volumes are as follows: 1. Trends in University Growth; 2. The Organization and Administration of the University; 3. The University Faculty; 4. Instructional Problems in the University; 5. Admission and Retention of University Students; 6. The Alumni of the Colleges; 7. The University Libraries; 8. University Extension Services; 9. University Plant Facilities; 10. Some University Student Problems; 11. Class size and University Costs; 12. The Oriental Institute.
- Yearbook: *Yearbook of the Universities of the Empire*, 1936, 1111 p., G. Bell and Sons, London, 15 shillings.

GROUP II—BOOKS

- Alexander, C.: *Educational Research; Suggestions and Sources of Data with Specific Reference to Administration*, 1931, 115 p., Teachers College, Columbia University, \$1.00.
- Alexander, C.: *How to Locate Educational Information and Data*, 1935, 272 p., Teachers College, Columbia University, \$3.00.
- Allen, W. H.: *Self-Surveys by Colleges and Universities*, 1917, World Book Company, New York, \$2.80.
- Baehne, G. W.: *Practical Applications of the Punched Card Method in Colleges and Universities*, 1935, 442 p., Columbia University Press, New York, \$4.50.
- Bobbitt, F.: *How to Make a Curriculum*, 1924, 292 p., Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, \$1.80.
- Boucher, C. S.: *Chicago College Plan*, 1935, 344 p., University of Chicago Press, \$3.00.
- Brinton, W. C.: *Graphic Methods for Presenting Facts*, 1914, 371 p., McGraw Hill Book Co., New York, \$6.00.

- Charters, W. W.: *Curriculum Construction*, 1923, Macmillan Co., New York, \$2.00.
- Cook, R. C.: *Who's Who in American Education*, 1933-34, 792 p., R. C. Cook Co., New York, \$8.00.
- Courtis, S. A., Editor: *Current Educational Readjustments in Higher Education*, 1929, 178 p., Studies in Education Yearbook #17, University of Chicago Press, \$1.00.
- Courtis, S. A.: *Quantitative Measurement in Institutions of Higher Learning*, Studies in Education Yearbook #18, 1930, 253 p., University of Chicago Press, \$1.50.
- Dearborn, W. F.: *Intelligence Tests—Their Significance for School and Society*, 1928, 336 p., Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, \$2.50.
- Doermann, H. J.: *The Orientation of College Freshmen*, 1926, 162 p., Williams and Wilkins Co., Baltimore, Md., \$3.00.
- Duffus, R. L.: *Democracy Enters College; A Study of the Rise and Decline of the Academic Lockstep*, 1936, 244 p., Scribner's Sons., New York, \$1.50.
- Edgerton, H. A., and Toops, H. A.: *Academic Progress; A Four-Year Follow-Up and Study of the Freshman Entering the University in 1923*, 150 p., 1929, Ohio State University Press, \$1.50.
- Ezekiel, M.: *Methods of Correlation Analysis*, 1930, 427 p., J. Wiley and Sons, New York, \$4.50.
- Flexner, A.: *Universities, American, English, German*, 1931, 381 p., Oxford Press, New York, \$3.50.
- Fowler, H. W.: *Dictionary of Modern English Usage*, 1926, 742 p., Oxford University Press, New York, \$3.25.
- Garrett, H. E.: *Statistics in Psychology and Education*, 1926, 317 p., Longmans, Green & Co., New York, \$3.50.
- Good, C. V.: *Teaching in College and University*, 1929, 150 p., Warwick and York, Baltimore, \$3.00. A Survey of the Problems and Literature in Higher Education.
- Government Printing Office: *Style Manual*, 1933, Supt. of Documents, Washington, D. C., \$1.00.
- Gray, W. S., Editor: *The Junior College Curriculum*, 1929, 261 p., University of Chicago Press, \$2.00.
- Gray, W. S., Editor: *Recent Trends in American College Education*, 1931, 253 p., University of Chicago Press, \$2.00.
- Gray, W. S., Editor: *Provision for the Individual in College Education*, 1932, 262 p., University of Chicago Press, \$2.00.
- Hammond, C. S. and Co.: *Pictorial Atlas of the World*, 1936, Hammond Co., Brooklyn, N. Y., \$1.00.
- Hill, D. S.: *Control of Tax-Supported Higher Education in the United States*, 1934, 385 p., Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, New York, Gratis.

- Holzinger, K. J.: *Statistical Methods for Students in Education*, 1928, 372 p., Ginn & Co., Boston, \$3.60.
- Holzinger, K. J.: *Statistical Tables for Students in Education and Psychology*, 1931, 101 p., University of Chicago Press, \$2.00.
- Hudelson, E., Editor: *Problems of College Education; Studies in Administration, Student Personnel, Curriculum and Instruction*, 1929, 449 p., University of Minnesota Press, \$3.00.
- Hudelson, E.: *Class Size at the College Level*, 1928, 299 p., University of Minnesota Press, \$3.00.
- Hugon, P. D.: *Modern Word Finder, A Living Guide to Modern Usage, Spelling, Synonyms, Pronunciation, Grammar, Word Origins and Authorship, All in One Alphabetical Order*, 1934, 420 p., Grosset and Dunlap, New York, \$1.00.
- Johnston, J. D.: *The Liberal College in Changing Society*, 1930, 326 p., The Century Co., New York, \$2.50.
- Jones, E. S.: *Comprehensive Examinations in American Colleges; an Investigation for the Association of American Colleges*, 1933, 436 p., Macmillan Co., New York, \$2.50.
- Jones, E. S., Editor: *Studies in Articulation of High School and College*, University of Buffalo Studies, Vols. 9 and 13, \$1.75.
- Kelly, F. J.: *American Arts College*, 1925, 198 p., Macmillan Co., New York, \$2.00.
- Kelly, R. L., Editor: *The Effective College; A Compilation of Reports on the Investigation made by the Association of American Colleges to Discover the Characteristics of an Effective College*, 1928, 302 p., Association of American Colleges, New York, \$2.00.
- Kent, R. A., Editor: *Higher Education in America*, 1930, 689 p., Ginn & Co., Boston, \$4.00.
- Kinder, J. S.: *The Internal Administration of the Liberal Arts College*, 1934, 160 p., Teachers College, Columbia University, \$1.50.
- Leonard, R. J., Editor: *Survey of Higher Education for the United Lutheran Church in America*, 1929, 389 p., Teachers College, Columbia University, \$3.00.
- Lindsay, E. E. and Holland, E. C.: *College and University Administration*, 1930, 666 p., The Macmillan Co., New York, \$4.00.
- Lloyd, Jones E.: *Student Personnel Work at Northwestern University*, 1929, 253 p., Harper and Brothers, New York, \$3.50.
- Lowell, A. L.: *At War with Academic Traditions in America*, 1934, 358 p., Harvard University Press, \$4.00.
- McConn, C. M.: *College or Kindergarten?* 1928, 275 p., New Republic, New York, \$1.00.
- McHale, K. and Speck, F. V.: *Newer Aspects of Collegiate Education*, 1936, 67 p., American Association of Univ. Women, Washington, D. C., 50¢.
- Meiklejohn, A.: *The Liberal College*, 1920, Marshall Jones Co., Boston, \$2.50.

- Molner, C. A.: *The Dean of the Small College*, 1936, Christopher Publishing Co., Boston.
- Morrison, R. H.: *Internal Administrative Organization in Teachers Colleges*, 1933, 183 p., Teachers College, Columbia University, \$1.75.
- Mursell, J. L.: *Principles of Education*, 1934, 505 p., W. W. Norton and Co., New York, \$2.75.
- National Advisory Committee on Education: *Federal Relations to Education*, 1930, 53 p., The Committee, 26 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C., Gratis.
- National Committee: *Suggested Forms for Enrollment Reports of Colleges and Universities, National Committee on Standard Reports for Institutions of Higher Education*, Bulletin #6, Committee Chairman L. Morey, University of Illinois.
- Rugg, H. O.: *Statistical Methods Applied to Education*, 1917, Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, \$2.60.
- Scott, W. D., and Clothier, R. C.: *Personnel Management, Principles, Practices, and Point of View*, 1931, 583 p., McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, \$4.00.
- University of Chicago Press: *Manual of Style, Containing Typographical Rules Governing the Publications of the University*, 1927, 400 p., University of Chicago Press, \$3.00.
- Ward, M. S.: *Philosophies of Administration Current in the Deanship of the Liberal Arts College*, 1934, 128 p., Teachers College, Columbia University, \$1.50.
- Whitney, F. L.: *The Junior College in America*, 1928, 258 p., Colorado State Teachers College, \$2.75.
- Wilkins, E. H.: *The Changing College*, 1927, 132 p., University of Chicago Press, \$1.50.
- Williams, J. H.: *Graphic Methods in Education*, 1924, 319 p., Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, \$2.00.
- Woellner, R. C., and Wood, M. A.: *Requirements for Teaching Certificates*, 1935, University of Chicago Press, \$1.00.
- Wood, B. D.: *Measurement in Higher Education*, 1923 World Book Co., Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York, \$2.16.
- Yearbook: *Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association*, Washington, D. C.

JOURNALS AND BULLETINS

GROUP I

- American Association of Collegiate Registrars, Bulletin of the*, Editor, M. E. Gladfelter, Temple University, Philadelphia, Pa. (Bibliography 1910-1933, Vol. IX, No. 2, Jan., 1934, p. 115-136.)
- American Association of Collegiate Registrars*. Report on the Accrediting of Educational Institutions. Chairman of Committee on Special Projects, I. M. Smith, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.

Educational Record. American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Pl., Washington, D. C.

Journal of Higher Education. Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

Office of Education Bulletins. Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. Various bulletins pertaining to secondary and higher education. Directory: Part 1, State and County School Officers. Part 2, City School Officers. Part 3, Colleges and Universities, including all institutions of higher education. Part 4, Education Association and Directories. Accredited Higher Institutions in the United States. Accredited Secondary Schools in the United States. Survey of Land Grant Colleges and Universities. Bulletin 1930, No. 9, Vol. 1, Part IV, The Work of the Registrar. Surveys of Educational Institutions. School Life. Bulletins on Foreign Educational Systems.

North Central Association Quarterly. 1439 University Elementary School Building, Ann Arbor, Mich.

Association of American Colleges Bulletin. 19 W. 44th Street, New York, N. Y.

Regional Associations. Proceedings and lists of accredited secondary schools and colleges. Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Secretary, G. W. McClelland, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa. New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Secretary, G. S. Miller, Tufts College, Medford Mass. North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Secretary, A. W. Clevenger, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill. Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools, Secretary, P. S. Filer, 322 Columbia Bldg., Spokane, Wash., Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Secretary, G. E. Snively, Birmingham-Southern College, Birmingham, Ala. Western Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Secretary, A. J. Cloud, Civic Auditorium, San Francisco, Calif.

School and Society. The Science Press, Lancaster, Pa.

Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, Reports and Bulletins. 522 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y.

National Association of State Universities in the United States of America, Transactions and Proceedings. Secretary, A. H. Upham, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio.

American Association of University Professors, Bulletin of the, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.

Progressive Education, 310 W. 90th St., New York, N. Y.

American Association of University Women, Journal of the, 1634 Eye St., N.W., Washington, D. C.

Educational Digest. Ann Arbor, Mich.

Journal of Educational Research. Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill.

American Medical Association. Approved Colleges of Arts and Sciences and Junior Colleges. Compiled by the Council on Medical Education and Hospitals. Journal (Educational Number in August). 535 N. Dearborn St., Chicago, Ill.

College Entrance Examination Board Reports. 431 W. 117th Street, New York, N. Y.

State Departments of Education. Lists of Accredited Schools. Directories of School Officials and Teachers. Annual and Biennial Reports. Rules and Regulations Covering Certificates, Professional Licenses, etc.

Survey Commissions. Reports.

Review of Educational Research. 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, D. C.

American Bar Association. Annual Review of Legal Education. 1140 N. Dearborn St., Chicago, Ill.

CATALOGS

Catalogs of Other Colleges and Universities.

All Publications of the Institution, for all years. Catalogs. Directories. Alumni Registers. Annual student year books published for graduating classes. Annual or biennial reports of institution. Minutes of administrative boards and committees. Rules and regulations. Schedules of classes. Studies and surveys.

GROUP II

Association of American Universities. Journal of Proceedings and Addresses. University of Chicago Press.

Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities. Secretary, T. Cooper University of Kentucky, Lexington, Ky.

College and University Presidents' Reports.

Educational Records Bureau Reports. 437 W. 59th St., New York, N. Y.

General Education Board Reports. 49 W. 49th St., New York, N. Y.

Institute of International Education. News Bulletin. 12 W. 45th St., New York, N. Y.

Journal Adult Education. 60 E. 42nd St., New York, N. Y.

Journal of Education. 6 Park St., Boston, Mass.

Junior College Journal. Stanford University Press, California.

National Educational Association. 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, D. C.
Department of Teachers Colleges Yearbook. Journal of the N. E. A. Research Bulletin.

Pacific Coast Association of Collegiate Registrars. Proceedings. Secretary, H. W. Frantz, La Verne College, La Verne, Calif.

Peabody Journal of Education. Nashville, Tenn.

Rockefeller Foundation. Reports. 49 W. 49th St., New York, N. Y.

School Review. Department of Education, University of Chicago.

Teachers College Record. Teachers College, Columbia University.

FOREIGN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEMS

Foreign and Comparative Education. A List of References. Bulletin, 1934, No. 10, Office of Education, Washington, D. C. As a regular part of its duties, the Office of Education of the United States Department of Interior collects and gives out information about education in other countries. Foreign credentials may be submitted to the Office of Education for evaluation. Numerous bulletins on foreign educational systems have been published by the Office of Education. These are included in the bulletin cited above.

EDITORIAL COMMENT

[From time to time editorials are contributed by members of the editorial board and guest writers. Such contributions do not necessarily reflect the point of view of the Editor or the Association.]

WHAT PRICE ATHLETICS?

The giving of athletic numerals or letters, and often of sweaters or leather jackets on which to wear these awards, has long been practiced. This has been recognized as an entirely legitimate reward for hard work on the practice field and for what some colleges and universities have appeared to feel is the best advertising medium for these institutions.

The monetary consideration granted to athletes by colleges and universities, although frequently not openly admitted, has been a matter of common knowledge for years. More recently, action of certain of the athletic conferences in openly recognizing what was formerly widely but clandestinely practiced has been considered of sufficiently important news value to be carried in glaring headlines in some of the leading daily papers throughout the country. Although there are still some who doubt whether a winning football team is the best possible advertising for an "educational" institution and whether it is worth what it costs, it is manifestly better to bring nearer together what we practice and what we profess. While we have been insisting that part of the value which accrues to the individual from athletic participation is moral training in self-control, honesty and fair-play, we (the colleges and universities) were guilty of subterfuge and of gross misrepresentation. Need we wonder that our example has spoken to our athletes more loudly than our works?

But while we have come to be more honest about the financial assistance proffered to athletes, another insidious practice has developed in some colleges and universities. If we were to believe the statements of many who were athletic heroes in high school, all too often athletic prowess has been accepted in lieu of intellectual progress, and athletes have been awarded high school diplomas which were spurious because they did not represent any real academic achievement. Nurtured in such an atmosphere for four years, having had a number of colleges or universities "bid" for his services on the athletic field and having "sold" himself to the highest bidder, is it

any wonder that the athlete appears surprised and feels abused if some professor in assigning grades fails properly to appreciate his athletic prowess? What is to be done in such a situation?

The institution which insists upon maintaining high academic standards for athletes and non-athletes alike is obviously at a disadvantage in competing athletically with institutions less careful academically. As long as athletic associations require that "after competing in a sport a student must advance a full year in class standing . . . before competing again in the same sport in inter-collegiate contests," just so long can we expect resort to subterfuge in some way or other. Either a "full year" will be defined in one way athletically and in an entirely different manner in computing requirements toward graduation, or the standard in grading will be placed in jeopardy.

When a student is unable to devote full time to academic duties because of the necessity to work to help defray his expenses, it is possible for him to carry a lighter schedule of courses, and thus to be able to master his studies. It is not considered a disgrace for such a student to take five years to graduate from college. The athlete often spends more time on the practice and playing field than the average student who is employed in the business world. We have frankly recognized this fact in making it no longer an heinous offense to assist him financially. Should we recognize the athlete's need for more time to devote to each of his studies by reducing the academic load he must carry? But, you may argue, such a lighter schedule would necessitate his taking five years to graduate. Probably if the records of athletes who do actually meet all graduation requirements and receive their degrees be examined, it will be found that a large number of them have been forced to attend a fifth year (or the equivalent in summer sessions). Many an athlete has become discouraged in academically honest higher institutions because he has not had sufficient time properly to prepare for the (for him) heavy schedule which is forced upon him. So long as the eligibility requirements remain what they are, we must pay the price necessary to meet them. Shall we continue to practice some form of subterfuge, or shall we face this issue honestly and save the athletes from discouragement by setting up a requirement which they may reasonably hope to meet?

What price athletics?

WYATT W. HALE

PROFESSIONAL NEWS

REGIONAL MEETINGS AND CONFERENCES

The program of the fifth conference of the *Educational Records Bureau* and co-operating groups presented many facets of the measurement topics, most of them well polished and some brilliant. After an opening consideration of the basic responsibilities of general education, the conference was prepared to consider how to measure educational outcomes in terms of the responsibilities assumed.

Special bases pertinent to evaluating the work of the thirty experimental secondary schools, problems in constructing English examinations, certain emphases and shifts in values in achievement testing, effective use of testing in public school guidance activities, the need for instruments to measure personality factors better to aid in the integration of personality programs, measurement in remedial reading projects—all received attention.

One very high light was Dr. Thurstone's explanation of the new instruments for testing intellectual abilities. His factoral analysis of intelligence has differentiated seven disparate "primary abilities," and perhaps an eighth, with the possibility of more to be isolated later. When these new tests are available, instead of talking in terms of a student's mental age or "I.Q.," we shall use a vocabulary describing *mental profiles* in terms of the individual's powers in each of these primary abilities.

Another high light was Assistant Superintendent Allen's (Providence, Rhode Island) illuminating discussion of practical ways and means of implementing a thoroughly effective program of guidance in a city school system. Both in his paper and in his discussions in the question and answer forum the same evening, he shed light on a wide range of allied problems that was indeed illuminating.

President Kent's (University of Louisville) able presentation of "The Program of the American Council on Education" gave a vast amount of information on the past, present, and projected work of the Council. Still, he presented it so compactly and interestingly that all members of the luncheon audience gave him complete attention, which is a tribute.

Another outstanding feature of the conference was the question and answer forum on Thursday evening. Pertinent questions and

pointed answers kept the group interested for more than an hour after the time to close, and earnest inquirers even prolonged the discussions in small groups for some time afterwards.

Again Dr. Ben Wood is to be congratulated upon the excellence of the program presented. It embarrasses anyone who tries to select high lights because of the consistently fine standard of excellence throughout. The Conference was held in the Hotel Roosevelt, New York City, October 29 and 30.

WRAY H. CONGDON

The 1936 meeting of the *Illinois Association of Collegiate Registrars* was held on October 29 and 30 on the campus of the Eastern Illinois State Teachers College at Charleston. The following papers were read:

"The Chicago Municipal Colleges," Dr. J. A. Humphries, Director of Personnel and Registrar of Wilson Junior College.

"Education Courses in the Normal Schools and Liberal Arts Colleges," Dr. F. A. Beu, Dean of Eastern Illinois State Teachers College.

"State Certification of Teachers," Mr. C. H. Engle, Secretary of Illinois State Examining Board for Teachers' Certificates.

"Historical Sketch of the I.A.C.R.," Mrs. George Boyer, Formerly Registrar of Bradley Polytechnic Institute.

"Diploma Mills," Mr. Enoch C. Dyrness, Vice-President and Registrar of Wheaton College.

The greater part of this year's program was given over to an open discussion of educational problems which are of particular interest in Illinois.

The new officers of the Illinois Association of Collegiate Registrars for 1937 are: President, Mr. A. Samuel Wallgren of North Park College; Vice-President, Dr. C. A. Serenius of Augustana College; Secretary-Treasurer, Miss M. Frances McElroy of National College of Education.

AGNES J. KAUFMANN

The ninth annual meeting of the *Wisconsin Association of Registrars* was held in the Memorial Union Building of the University at Madison on October 30, 1936, with the President, Mrs. Mary L. Melzer of Marquette University, presiding. A varied program was

presented and an opportunity was given after each paper for full discussion and questions. The following papers were presented:

"What a College President Expects of the Registrar's Office," C. M. Yoder, Whitewater State Teachers College, President.

"Proposed Co-operative Techniques for Student Recruiting," M. C. Towner, Lawrence College, Assistant to the President.

"Report of the Detroit Meeting," Miss Lucile Peters, Milwaukee-Downer College, Registrar.

"Statistical Studies," Miss Annie B. Kirch, The University of Wisconsin, Statistician.

"The Value of Tests in Predicting College Success," Dr. R. L. C. Butsch, Marquette University, Associate Professor of Education.

Two sectional meetings were held during the latter part of the afternoon session. The group was divided as follows:

Section A. College Group, Miss Bessie M. Weirick, Beloit College, Leader.

Section B. State Teachers College Group, Mr. John C. Lazenby, Milwaukee State Teachers College, Leader.

As an outgrowth of the discussion which followed Dr. Towner's paper on student recruiting, especially as it affects Wisconsin institutions, a proposal was made that the Association take some active part in attempting to correct the present system. Dr. Towner was made chairman of a committee to look into the practices and policies on recruiting and to submit a plan or proposal to the officers of the higher institutions of the State. Other members of the committee are: Mr. Curtis Merriman, Registrar of the University of Wisconsin; Rev. F. F. Du Pont of St. Norbert's College, De Pere; President E. A. Fitzpatrick of Mount Mary College, Milwaukee; and Mr. J. R. Wallin, Registrar of Eau Claire State Teacher's College.

Miss Bessie Weirick, Registrar of Beloit College, was selected as President for 1936-37, and Miss Georgia Martin, Assistant Registrar at the University of Wisconsin, continues as Secretary of the Association.

The annual meetings have always been held in Madison, but the group voted to meet in Milwaukee in October, 1937.

GEORGIA M. MARTIN

The annual meeting of the *Kentucky Registrars* was held in conjunction with the thirteenth annual education conference at Livings-

ton, Kentucky, October 30 and 31. The following papers were read: "An Analysis of the State Testing Program," Professor E. J. Asher, Department of Psychology, University of Kentucky; "Report on the Records Kept by Secondary Schools," Professor M. E. Ligon, College of Education, University of Kentucky; "The Experimental Freshman Plan at the University of Louisville," Dean J. J. Openheimer, College of Liberal Arts, University of Louisville; "Some New Trends in Education," Dean T. A. Hendricks, Berea College.

An opportunity was given at the close of the morning session for the discussion of the papers. Miss Mary Milton Regis of Morehead State Teachers College gave a report of the last meeting of the National Association. Miss Maple Moores of the University of Kentucky presided at the meeting.

The annual *Conference for Registrars and Admission Officers of New York State* was held in Albany on November 5. The opening session was addressed by Harlan H. Horner, Assistant Commissioner for Higher Education in the State of New York. This address was followed by an open forum directed by H. G. Arnsdorf, Registrar of New York University. In this forum, the varying methods employed by colleges and universities for the admission of students were discussed. The discussion was centered upon the following requirements: College Board Examinations, Regents Examinations, certificate, special entrance examinations, psychological and aptitude tests. The requirements for admission to various professional schools were also discussed. At the conclusion of the period the discussion centered upon methods for developing co-operation between secondary schools and higher institutions. Edward Charles Elliott, President of Purdue University, addressed the luncheon meeting. The afternoon forum was led by Eugene F. Bradford, Registrar of Cornell University. This meeting was devoted to a discussion of the potential capacities of colleges and universities in the State to provide for additional students. It included a consideration of the Junior College movement and the attitude which Liberal Arts Colleges and admission officers should take in accepting students from collegiate centers and unaccredited Junior Colleges. Registrar Edward J. Grant of Columbia University, was Chairman of the committee in charge of the program.

The sixteenth convention of the *Texas Branch of the American*

Association of Collegiate Registrars was held in Dallas, November 6 and 7.

In addition to the open forum and formal discussions, reports were received from representatives of the Independent Senior Colleges, Municipal Junior Colleges, and the Independent Junior Colleges.

The convention was a most successful one with one of the largest attendance records in the history of the organization. About 80 members and visitors were present. The Open Forum on Saturday morning was conducted by the Dean of Texas Registrars, E. J. Mathews, of the University of Texas. This Forum was especially helpful to new Registrars who had sent their problems in advance to Mr. Mathews for discussion in the meeting.

The Eleventh Annual Convention of the *Pacific Coast Association of Collegiate Registrars* convened in San Francisco, on November 9 and 10, with 86 representatives from 46 different institutions located in the States of California, Oregon, and Washington participating. The average attendance at the four half-day sessions was 60 with the largest percentage of these taking part in the discussions. The program was unique in that the open forum method was followed with only a few formal papers being presented. This plan proved so popular that the report of the Resolutions Committee included a recommendation urging the Program Committee for next year to make even further use of the forum and panel methods of presentation.

Two topics which stimulated unusual interest were "The 1937 Streamlined Model Registrar" and "The Program of Counseling." The subjects were ably directed by Registrars Douglas McClane of Whitman College, George T. Dotson, San Diego State College, Frank T. Barnard, Washington State College, and Adam Diehl, Los Angeles Junior College. One of the sessions, which was under the direction of Floyd P. Bailey, Dean of Santa Rosa Junior College and Paul H. Mohr of San Francisco Junior College, was devoted to a consideration of junior college problems. Among several other timely topics "Placements and Co-operative Housing" attracted much favorable comment. This was presented by Miss Vera Christie, Manager, Bureau of Occupations at the University of California.

The officers elected for the coming year are as follows: President,

Miss Florence Brady, Registrar, Occidental College, Los Angeles, California; First Vice-President, Miss Ellen Olesen, Registrar, University of Idaho, Moscow, Idaho; Second Vice-President, Mr. Earl M. Pallett, Registrar, University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon; Secretary, Mr. Douglas McClane, Registrar, Whitman College, Walla Walla, Washington; Treasurer, Mr. Joe H. West, Registrar San Jose State College, San Jose, California.

The day following the meetings in San Francisco, which were held in the Hotel Sir Francis Drake, a group of some twenty journeyed thirty miles south to Stanford University where they spent the day as guests of Registrar J. P. Mitchell.

In accordance with the policy of the Association, the proceedings of the 1936 convention, in which all papers are printed in full, will be published in January.

E. B. LEMON AND FLORENCE VANCE

The fall 1936 meeting of the *Colorado Wyoming Association of Collegiate Registrars* was held in the Cosmopolitan Hotel, Denver, on November 14, 1936. The entire morning session was devoted to a discussion of the Progressive Education Experiment. Dean W. E. Scott of the University of Chicago, and Dr. C. L. Cushman, Director of Curriculum and Research, Denver Public Schools, were presented by Dean R. J. Walters of the University of Denver. Dean Walters introduced the topic by commenting briefly upon the nationwide program instituted by the Progressive Education Association in selected high schools for the purpose of making an eight year study of high schools and colleges on the effect of liberalizing high school requirements and curricula.

Dr. Cushman then presented a report of the progress of the experiment to date in the high schools of Denver. In substance, the Denver approach to the study is that of assigning all students who are participating in the study to what are known as "core teachers" in groups of about forty. Teachers in English and Social Science become the core teachers. One English teacher and one Social Science teacher are in charge of each group for the purpose of integrating instruction and to provide better opportunity for conferences. These teachers are in charge of the group throughout the three years of the high school course. An elaborate record is kept by the students with the help of the core teacher and parents for the purpose of recording the progress of the student. This is supple-

mented by test results, etc., with the formal record of the student kept on a modified form of the American Council Accumulative Record Form. At the inception of the study a small group in each high school was selected for participation. With the opening of the school year 1936-37 the entire tenth grade in one of the high schools was put under the plan and Natural Science included in the "core group" assignments.

The first group graduated from high school in June, 1936. Approximately fifty of these students are now registered in the University of Denver. Dean Scott presented the plan which will be used in following these students. The national committee has prepared a group of criteria for college success, including items of intellectual achievement, social fitness, cultural development, etc. Data will be secured on all of the various items concerning each student and a continuing study will be made of each case.

After the address there was considerable discussion, particularly with respect to the approach of the Denver Public Schools to the study. The session proved very valuable because all of the institutions present are somewhat affected by the experiment in the light of the fact that the graduates of Denver high schools find their way into most of the institutions in this region.

The afternoon session included a short paper by Sister Mary Vivian of Loretta Heights College on the subject of "Student Losses—Freshmen and Sophomore—How They Can Be Met." Sister Vivian pointed out the various causes for student mortality, such as finance, scholarship discouragement, etc. Her comments caused some discussion particularly with respect to local situations.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year: President, Mrs. Mary W. Wilkerson, Colorado School of Mines; Vice-President, Father W. D. Ryan, Regis College; Secretary-Treasurer, Miss Lucy E. Spicer, Western State College of Colorado.

The usual round table question and answer period terminated the activities of the meeting.

A. C. NELSON

The *Kentucky Association of Registrars* had its annual meeting at the University of Kentucky on October 30.

Professor A. J. Asher of the Department of Psychology, University of Kentucky, presented a paper on "An Analysis of the State Testing Program." By means of charts and graphs Professor

Asher brought to the attention of the Association many interesting facts.

Professor M. E. Ligon of the College of Education, University of Kentucky, presented a paper on "Report on the Records Kept by Secondary Schools." Professor Ligon displayed several forms typical of those used in many of the high schools of the State. He had with him samples of all blanks used in Kentucky high schools.

Dean J. J. Openheimer of the University of Louisville, presented a paper entitled "The Experimental Freshman Plan in the University of Louisville." Dean Hendricks of Berea College discussed "Some New Trends in Education."

Each of these addresses was followed by an open discussion from the floor. During the business session the following officers were elected for the coming year: President, Miss Mary Page Milton, Morehead State Teachers College; Vice-President, Mr. William H. Koenig, Pikeville College; Secretary-Treasurer, Miss Ann Poindexter, Georgetown College.

ANN POINDEXTER

The Eleventh Annual Meeting of the *Association of Ohio College Registrars and Examiners* was held in Muskingum College on November 6 and 7.

At the opening forum the topic "Some Problems of High School and College Integration" was discussed by Professor Diederich, Ohio State University, Professor Porter, Ohio University, and Dean Ogan of Muskingum College. President Ralph Hickok, Western College, and Dean Thomas McCracken, Ohio University, addressed the Friday Evening and Saturday Morning Sessions respectively.

The following officers were elected: President, Arthur F. Southwick, The College of Wooster, Wooster, Ohio; Vice-President, Miss Hazel D. Geiner, Toledo University, Toledo, Ohio; Secretary-Treasurer, Miss Carrie E. McKnight, Muskingum College, New Concord, Ohio. William C. Smyser, Miami University, was President of the Association during the past year.

The sixth meeting of the *Middle States Association of Collegiate Registrars* was held on Saturday, November 28, at Haddon Hall, Atlantic City, N. J., in connection with the meeting of the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. The President, Mr. F. Taylor Jones, Registrar, Drew University, presided.

There were three sessions, a breakfast meeting at which routine business was transacted, a luncheon meeting, and an afternoon session adjourning at 4 P.M. Approximately one hundred people attended one or all of the sessions. The A.A.C.R. was well represented by Mr. M. E. Gladfelter, Editor of the *Bulletin*, Miss Emma E. Deters, Treasurer of the A.A.C.R., Mr. Alan Bright and Mr. J. G. Quick, past presidents of the national association.

The afternoon program consisted of a panel discussion and reports of committee chairmen. In the panel discussion on "The relationship between the junior college and the four-year college," the following issues were considered:

1. Should all junior college transfers to higher institutions be examined for admission?
2. Are the scholastic standards of the junior colleges in this area comparable to those of the first two years of our four-year colleges?
3. What is the significance of "approved list of junior colleges" published by the Middle States Association?
4. Should four-year higher institutions encourage or discourage the development of more junior colleges in this area? In either case how?
5. Can the junior colleges serve two masters—preparation for further college work and civic and vocational training for life for those going no further in their formal education?

The members of the panel were: Wray H. Congdon, Director of Admissions, Lehigh University, Chairman; Henry G. Arnsdorf, Registrar, New York University; Frances B. Blanshard, Dean of Women, Swarthmore College; Byron S. Hollinshead, President, Scranton-Keystone Junior College; Albert E. Meder, Jr., Chairman of the Committee on Admissions and Underclass Years, New Jersey College for Women; Robert H. Morrison, Principal, New Jersey State Normal School, Paterson, and State Supervisor of New Jersey Junior Colleges; Arthur S. Platt, Dean, Morris County Junior College; Franklin I. Sheeder, Jr., Registrar, Ursinus College; and Robert J. Trevorow, President, Centenary Junior College, and President, the Junior College Council of the Middle States.

Mr. Alfred D. Donovan of Manhattan College, reported on "A method of keeping records of extra-curricular activities." Miss Alma H. Preinkert of the University of Maryland, reported on "The regis-

trar's professional library." Mr. Fred E. Nessell of George Washington University, reported on "Phases of the registrar's work."

The officers elected for 1937 are: President, Mr. C. F. Ross; Vice-President, Mr. H. S. Batdorf; Secretary-Treasurer, Miss Irene M. Davis.

The Secretary-Treasurer reported a membership of 115.

MARGARET C. DISERT

At the annual meeting of the *Nebraska Branch of the A.A.C.R.* held at Midland College, November 12-13, the following officers were elected: President, Mr. E. H. Hayward, Peru State Teachers College; Vice-President, Miss Claire McDermott, Creighton University; Secretary-Treasurer, Miss Edith M. Smithey, Kearney State Teachers College.

FROM THE EDUCATIONAL NEWS REEL

Report number five on the Co-operative Study of Secondary School Standards, lists the general plans for the experimental try-out of materials and procedures in 200 selected schools. Four chief methods are being employed in these schools in an attempt to develop a balanced program for evaluation and stimulation of secondary schools. These are:

1. Descriptions and reports of the school by the school itself.
2. Visits lasting from 2 to 3 days in each school by a committee of 3 persons experienced in examining schools.
3. A testing program administered to approximately 100 pupils in each school.
4. Follow-up of the product of the schools.

The visiting committees have been in the field since October 1. It will be the purpose of these committees to assemble the materials necessary for the evaluation of all data, formulation of recommendations, and publication of the final report.

A committee on college entrance of the Kentucky Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, of which Ezra L. Gillis of the University of Kentucky is Chairman, has made a study of the requirements prescribed for admission to 155 institutions. The purpose of the study was to crystallize the general practice in admission and to recommend to the Kentucky Association such revision of the present practice as seemed necessary. The following findings are extracted from the report of the committee:

General Trends in the Last 25 Years. We have changed from a discussion of high school subjects and college subjects to the terms high school level and college level; from placing the emphasis on preparation for college to preparation for life; from a limited college curriculum to one that includes nearly every phase of human endeavor, with a corresponding change in the high school offerings.

Trends by Groups. (a) Land Grant Colleges. From a review of the Land Grant College Survey, we find that since 1910 the average number of units required for admission has increased from 11.5 to 15, but that the percentage of prescribed subjects has dropped from 85 per cent to 40 per cent. In the last eight years the number of institutions prescribing algebra dropped from 47 to 33; the number prescribing plane geometry from 46 to 27. The number prescribing foreign languages dropped from 21 to 13 and social sciences from 32 to 25.

(b) Kentucky Colleges. Kentucky colleges in 1910 prescribed an average of 10.1 units. The present average is five units. At present Kentucky colleges specify only one major and one minor; this is below the average for all institutions studied. In 1900, as a rule, a minimum of two languages with two years work in each, mathematics, English, history, and science were prescribed. The Carnegie unit had not come into common use.

Present Requirements in All Groups Studied. Of the 155 institutions studied, 80 do not specify plane geometry; 67 do not specify algebra; 18 specify mathematics, but not the courses in mathematics. Eighteen institutions have certain major and minor requirements. A major consists of three credits and minor of two.

Intelligence Tests. Practically all institutions are interested and state they are making some use of tests in special cases, but at present such use is limited in the main to a guidance program.

Each faculty member at the Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Indiana, is supplied with a list of freshmen with ratings based upon information from the admission blank, the psychological examination, and the English examination. This information is supplied by the Registrar, Harry E. Elder, in order that each member of the faculty will have adequate data in counseling with and advising his students.

Registrar J. D. Quick reports that the University of Pittsburgh has engaged upon a research project which endeavors to examine

further the validity of some principles of college admission. Of particular interest is the problem of college admission based upon relative academic ratings among graduates of individual accredited high schools. Some 4,000 analyses of individual students' academic histories in high school and at the University are being made. The results should provide a factual basis for the re-evaluation of university policy regarding admission requirements, in so far as secondary school performance has been regarded as a predictive or certifying factor.

The Office of the Registrar is collaborating with other departments of the University in this important piece of educational research.

According to the 1936 report of the president and treasurer of the Carnegie Corporation, the total grants for the year for all purchases were \$10,470,009. The amount of the grants excluding capital for insurance and annuities totalled \$3,770,009. The latter figure included \$642,050 for library interests, \$198,250 for adult education, \$857,750 for the arts, \$661,305 for research studies and publications.

During the year ending June 30, 1936, the General Education Board appropriated \$9,489,358.31 according to the annual report. This reports an increase of \$1,995,208.28 over the previous year. The major appropriations were \$1,252,460 for general education, \$448,725 for child study, \$1,345,735 for educational work in the South, and \$475,000 for scholarships and fellowships.

Professor C. Emanuel Ekstrom, Chairman of the Department of Education of Brown University, reports that the demand for teachers who have completed the five year program at Brown is constantly increasing. The Brown principle provides for five years of study instead of the usual four, and includes practice teaching in the fifth year program. Fifth year students must hold Bachelor's degrees with preliminary training in the field of education, and are enrolled in the graduate school as candidates for the Master's degree.

According to the report of Dr. Alfred B. Crawford, Department of Personal Study and Bureau of Appointments at Yale University, a definite shortage of men with engineering and scientific training was noticed during the last year as compared with the demand for those without technological ability. Of the 396 seniors last year, registered for occupational placement or advice, 162 seniors and

39 graduate students were assisted occupationally and more than 100 later withdrew their registration because they got positions independently or decided to pursue further studies.

Several requests have come in for the names of institutions which could supply index tables for computing honor-point ratios. Registrars who have prepared such tables should communicate with the Editor. The institutions express a willingness to pay the cost for making photostatic copies.

When writing to the Editor, indicate which of the following systems for awarding points is used:

System 1

Sem. Hours Grade A $\times 3$
 Sem. Hours Grade B $\times 2$
 Sem. Hours Grade C $\times 1$
 Sem. Hours Grade D $\times 0$
 Sem. Hours Grade E -1

System 2

Sem. Hours Grade A $\times 4$
 Sem. Hours Grade B $\times 3$
 Sem. Hours Grade C $\times 2$
 Sem. Hours Grade D $\times 1$
 Sem. Hours Grade E $\times 0$

Index tables for both systems have been requested.

On November 13 and 14 the University of Indiana sponsored the Fifteenth Annual High School Principals' Conference. The general theme of the Conference this year was "Bridging the Gap between High School and After." Registrar Ira M. Smith of the University of Michigan was the guest speaker for the Conference. For some years Mr. Smith has studied the problems of college freshmen as they enter a large university, and has invited high school principals to continue personal contact with their own graduates. A recent publication entitled "The Articulation of High-School Studies with Freshman Courses in the University" issued by the University of Michigan, reports the efforts of the committees working on this problem at Michigan.

APPOINTMENTS AND CHANGES

On October 2, 1936, William Alfred Eddy was inaugurated President of Hobart College and William Smith College at Geneva, New York. Registrar George A. Roberts of Hobart College represented the American Association of Collegiate Registrars at the inaugural ceremony.

Mr. G. T. Buckley, formerly Dean of Blue Mountain College, has been appointed Registrar of the Mississippi State College for Women. Mr. Buckley holds B.A. and M.A. degrees from Baylor

University and a Ph.D. from the University of Chicago. He succeeds Dr. R. L. Williams, who last July became an Assistant Registrar of the University of Michigan.

Charlie S. Wilkins, Registrar and Dean of students at the John Tarleton Agricultural College, Stephenville, Texas, is on a nine months' leave of absence, pursuing graduate study in Agricultural Economics at Texas A and M College.

Dr. Erland Nelson has resigned as President of Dana College, Blair, Nebraska, to accept an appointment as instructor in Psychology in Newberry College, Newberry, South Carolina. } - 7

Registrar C. W. Helmstadter of the Municipal University of Omaha was granted the degree of Doctor of Philosophy on August 14 by the University of Iowa. Mr. Helmstadter holds B.A. and M.A. degrees from the University of Nebraska. His dissertation dealt with "A Comparison of Several Types of Executives with Regard to Their Peculiar Interests in Various Activities."

The College of the Pacific beginning this year has organized the lower division into a Junior College, known as the Stockton Junior College. This organization was made to enable students from the city of Stockton to take advantage of the first two years of the college program. According to Assistant Registrar Ellen L. Deering: "Many local students, under our former plan, could not take advantage of the College of the Pacific facilities due to the fact that they could not pay the tuition that the College of the Pacific, as a private college, required. This new plan gives the Junior College students the advantages that may be derived from membership in a four year college; also the advantages of attending a college that maintains its own residence halls. Junior College students are admitted to membership in all of the campus organizations."

The Hotel Kansas Citian has been selected as the meeting place for the 1937 Convention of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars because of its splendid residence and convenient facilities. It offers to its guests the advantages of an Athletic Club, and the privacy of a Hotel. The Registrars who plan to attend the 1937 Convention on April 13 and 14 will be pleased to know that the Hotel has a swimming pool, gymnasium, and complete recreational facilities.

The annual meeting of the American Council of Guidance and Personnel Associations will be held in New Orleans, February 17-20, 1937. According to a communication from the Secretary Treasurer from that Association, Registrars who plan to attend the meeting should make room reservations for the Convention early because of the relatively limited hotel facilities in New Orleans and the demand for hotel accommodations there from regular winter visitors.

On Wednesday, November 18, the Rt. Rev. Joseph Moran Corrigan, S.T.D., was inaugurated as sixth Rector of the Catholic University of America, at Washington, D. C. The guests and representatives included the trustees and faculty of the University, the American Hierarchy of the Roman Catholic Church, delegates of more than three hundred institutions of higher learning, members of the Diplomatic Corps, officials of the United States Government, heads of the religious houses affiliated with the University, and a delegation of priests from the Archdiocese of Philadelphia. Msgr. Corrigan was appointed Rector of the Catholic University in March, 1936, succeeding the Most Rev. James Hugh Ryan who had been appointed Bishop of Omaha, Nebraska.

The Reverend John Koebele, O.F.M., formerly Registrar of Quincy College, Quincy, Illinois, has been promoted to the presidency of that Institution.

Miss Marian Vertrees, Registrar of the Modesto Junior College for the past 11 years, has resigned her position to enter religious work in Yakima, Washington.

Miss Helen G. Duggan, member of the Registrar's staff at the University of Colorado, has been appointed Examiner for the University of Colorado.

Geoffrey W. Lewis has taken over the duties of assistant dean in charge of records for Harvard College.

Mr. Charles D. Johnson, formerly Vice-President and Registrar of the Arkansas State Agricultural and Mechanical College at Monticello, has been appointed Dean of Blue Mountain College, Blue Mountain, Mississippi.

Miss Louise Walther has been appointed to the Registrar's staff at the University of Louisville.

BOOK REVIEWS

Back to Aristotle:—Robert Maynard Hutchins, referred to as the militant young president of the University of Chicago, the fire-cracker of education, etc., has written a fighting book¹ in which he proposes a reorganization of the higher learning and its foundation, general education, based upon a return to cultivation of the intellect. His proposal has already been described by other militant educators as medieval and naive. We have a suspicion that the author is neither surprised nor troubled at such reactions to his proposals, but smiles at his success in shocking a few educators out of their lethargy, and hopes that his seemingly reactionary proposal will stimulate wide discussion and possibly a rethinking of higher education.

In the first chapter he discusses the external conditions under which American education operates, and finds the love of money and a misconception of democracy the cause of great confusion in the higher learning. "The universities," he asserts, "are dependent upon the people. The people love money and think that education is a way of getting it. They think too that democracy means that every child should be permitted to acquire the educational insignia that will be helpful in making money. They do not believe in the cultivation of the intellect for its own sake." The result of this modern temper is an anti-intellectual university whose function is to prepare students to get better jobs and to make more money.

In the second chapter, *The Dilemmas of the Higher Learning*, he admits that the University has, or professes to have another aim, the pursuit of truth for its own sake, but shows that the newer aim, the preparation of men and women for their life work, enjoys the greater popularity and even threatens to extinguish the pursuit of truth for its own sake. This is the first dilemma.

"Vocationalism," he says, "leads to triviality and isolation; it debases the course of study and the staff. It deprives the university of its only excuse for existence, which is to provide a haven where the search for truth may go on unhampered by utility or pressure for results To the extent to which professors are concerned with preparation for a specific trade they are isolated from professors interested in another specific trade, and both groups are isolated from

¹ *The Higher Learning in America*, Yale University Press, 1936, pp. 119, \$2.00.

those who are not interested in any trade at all but are attempting to pursue the truth for its own sake." This is the second dilemma.

The anti-intellectualism already mentioned constitutes the third dilemma. The professions demand that the universities train people according to their ideas of what that training should be, and thereby force the universities into anti-intellectualism. How can the professions be persuaded to accept the university idea of what that training should be? He does not seem to be very sure that they can be, but he has no doubt as to what the course of the university should be. It must develop a program of general education upon which all professional training may rest, must give the professional disciplines intellectual content in their own rights, and the professional departments must adopt the unifying principle of truth for its own sake.

Now, what is Mr. Hutchins' idea of a general education? He answers this question in chapter three. First, he reminds us that neither the world nor knowledge of it is divided up into departments as universities are. He utilizes the following syllogism as the foundation of his discussion. "Education implies teaching. Teaching implies knowledge. Knowledge is truth. The truth is everywhere the same. Hence education should be everywhere the same." In order that education may be everywhere the same, it must consist only, or primarily, of the permanent studies. What are the permanent studies? They are (1) books that have come to be regarded as classics (the great books of the western world), (2) grammar (rules of reading), (3) rhetoric and logic (rules of writing, speaking, and reading), and (4) mathematics ("to exemplify reasoning in its clearest and most precise form"). He believes that all of the needs of general education in America will be satisfied by this program, but he doubts that the faculties will establish such a program, because they will not want to change the habits of their lives.

Having defined a general education concerning the adoption of which he is very pessimistic, he proceeds to describe the kind of higher learning that should be built upon it if it should be adopted. First, he puts research into its right perspective. "Research in the sense of gathering data for the sake of gathering them has no place in a university." This type of research he would carry on in research institutes attached to the university. "Research in the sense of the development, elaboration, and refinement of principles, together with the collection and use of empirical materials to aid in these

processes is one of the highest activities of a university and one in which all its professors should be engaged."

Having disposed of the bugbear of research the nature of the ideal university may be sanely discussed. First, there must be a unifying principle. The medieval university had it in theology, but theology implies orthodoxy and an orthodox church, neither of which exist in America. Moreover "we are a faithless generation and take no stock in revelation," so theology cannot be utilized to unify the modern university. Where then shall we find a principle of unity? But why not omit from theology the faith which we do not have, and the revelation in which we take no stock? There, we have it! For without faith and revelation we are back to Aristotle and metaphysics. Another syllogism turns the trick. "The aim of higher education is wisdom. Wisdom is knowledge of principles and causes. Therefore metaphysics is the highest wisdom."

By metaphysics, he means not only the science of first principles, but also "all that follows from it about the change in the physical world." Instead of having the student move from recent observations back to first principles, he would have him move from first principles "to whatever recent observations were significant in understanding them."

By this interpretation, metaphysics would pervade the whole curriculum; and everything else, the social sciences, the natural sciences, etc., would be subordinate. They would be taught as aids in understanding first principles.

A word should be said about his disposition of professional and technical education which, according to his judgment, have no place in the university. Like research of the data gathering type, these activities would be carried on in institutes attached to the university.

The whole structure rests upon an assumption that the first principles are absolute, which many of Mr. Hutchins' critics will deny. Cannot new truths be derived from new knowledge? If so how does this affect the place of research in his university? His critics will be very much distressed about the metaphysics. They will not be able to see the American college student relishing the more abstruse branches of philosophy that a study of metaphysics involves. They will not see it in the broader interpretation which seems to be implied in his proposal, and they will not recognize what this writer believes to be a studied overstatement for sake of brevity and emphasis.

The book has set off a lot of firecrackers and we predict that when the smoke has cleared and the smell of burnt powder has dissipated there will be a better understanding of the causes of confusion in the higher learning.

Red Book:—In 1930 the Executive Council of Kappa Delta Pi, education fraternity, made provision for an award of one thousand dollars to the author of the best report of research during the succeeding bienniums on subjects to be chosen by the Council. Two awards have been made for studies of the problem, "What Educational Program Will Best Meet the Needs of Our Developing Social and Economic Situation?" The first went to Will French for his *Education and Social Dividends*. A companion volume¹ has now been published.

The book advocates a radical social and educational policy which may be epitomized as follows. There are three problems of education: "(1) the problem of transmitting the expanding stock of information about the world we live in, (2) the problem of securing the rounded development of the supposedly self-directing individual (the ideal of the progressive educator), and (3) the problem of enlisting the impoverished and exploited workers of the world in organized struggle for control of the means of satisfying their material and cultural needs." The solutions of the first and second of these problems are compatible with capitalism, but the solution of the third problem is incompatible with the present interests of capitalism, for it brings the workers into sharp collision at every point of contact with the powers whose interests are vested in *status quo*. All seven of the cardinal principles of education are involved in this social conflict which is reflected even in educational theory in the clash between the revolutionary type, or dialectical reasoning and the utopian type, or idealistic reasoning.

Finally this conflict between the classes is exemplified in the present school program. To teachers the schools are a market for their labor and they stand in the same relation to the schools as the factory worker to the factory. The school superintendent is the general manager of the school system as a business enterprise with interests so different from those of the teachers and parents that they may be in sharp conflict.

¹ *Education and Social Conflict*, Langford, Howard David, New York: Macmillan.

Teachers should, therefore, align themselves with workers and utilize their opportunities to sharpen class lines inside and outside of the schools, and to organize militant groups of teachers, students, and parents, for the stimulation of proletarian culture. They should utilize their subject matter as "an instrument for advancing the dialectical transformation of our capitalist society and for building and participating in the proletarian society, both before and after the transfer of power."

The author then shows how several of the school subjects may be used to this end by dialectic presentation. Projects, he says, "for class conscious pupils, may become a basis for militant action in support of workers demanding union recognition or consumers protesting excessive charges for living necessities or services."

The book is a lucid exposition of how the proponents of the Marxian philosophy would harness the schools in their program of radical social reconstruction. Educators should read it for they should know, as the editor opines, where the red signals are located.

New Light on Personnel Procedure:—The great popularization of education in the last thirty years has tended, on account of economic considerations, to encourage mass education, the evils of which we have tried to correct by individualizing education through what is generally known as personnel administration. A recently published book² describes personnel procedures that have been used successfully, from the points of view of a decentralized and of a centralized program.

The author favors the centralized personnel department or guidance bureau coordinated with decentralized personnel counseling as the best method of individualizing education. The centralized department serves in the accumulation of detailed information needed for counseling, in its organization and distribution for the use of teachers and counselors, in the keeping of records, and in specialized counseling. His idea of the scope of a good personnel program is expressed as follows: "... the college should provide adequate facilities for the diagnosis, selection, analysis, orientation, counseling, maintenance, placement, and follow-up of each student according to his individual ability and needs, to the end of his greatest development, performance and personal efficiency."

² *Individualizing Education By Means of Personnel Procedures*, Walters, J. E., New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1935, pp. xvi + 278. \$2.50.

The book is not a critical analysis of personnel administration, but attempts to present tested procedures applicable in college, high school and elementary school, although the problem of secondary and elementary school counseling receives relatively small attention, so small, in fact, that in the opinion of this reader the book would have been improved by limiting the discussion to the problem on the college level.

The Advancing Junior College:—The growth of the junior college movement, represented by three institutions in 1900 and by more than five hundred in 1936, is described in a recent bulletin³ from the Office of Education. The purpose of the study reported in this bulletin, as stated by the author, was "to provide in readily accessible, compact form, information concerning the junior colleges as they now exist; to record some of the important changes that have taken place in the status of these institutions since their creation; and to furnish data on each of the junior colleges that will be helpful to students who are selecting a two-year college and who may or may not plan further work in higher education."

The study reveals several significant features of the junior college movement and some interesting trends, among which is a definitely indicated trend toward reorganization as four-year colleges. Since 1929 only six four-year colleges have reorganized as junior colleges, but twenty-five junior colleges have reorganized as four-year colleges and many others are hoping to do so. In view of the fact that there is now an average of approximately twenty-four degree-granting institutions per state and that many four-year colleges have been strongly advised to reorganize as junior colleges, this seems to be a very undesirable trend.

If you have not already received this bulletin, you will find it worth a place in your office library.

Essential Statistics:—Among the many bulletins useful in the registrar's office that have been published by the Office of Education in recent years is one⁴ that will be appreciated by those who are interested in the problem of selective admissions and educational guidance of students in college. This bulletin is a handbook

³ *Junior Colleges*, Greenleaf, Walter, Office of Education Bulletin 1936, No. 3. Superintendent of Documents, 15¢.

⁴ *Prediction of Success in College*, Segel, David, Bulletin 1934, No. 15. Superintendent of Documents, 10¢.

of the essential statistics of prediction studies. It is especially valuable because only the essential statistics are presented and the methods illustrated by actual prediction problems.

In addition to the guidance it furnishes in statistical method, the bulletin is a valuable source of information. Many studies are summarized and more than 450 coefficients of correlation are reported from other studies.

Registrars, admissions officers and other personnel officers who have an elementary knowledge of educational statistics will find this bulletin quite helpful.

IN THE JOURNALS

"And Sadly Teach," Virginia Gildersleeve, *The American Scholar*, Vol. 5, No. 4 (Autumn 1936).

The article deals with the tendency of state certification departments to prescribe requirements for teaching with the result, according to the author, "it seems to be rapidly becoming impossible for graduates of our best liberal arts colleges to teach in the public schools of the country." One explanation is the increasing requirement of professional work. This either bars Bachelor of Arts or forces them to include in the undergraduate course so much professional work as to prevent their learning much about the subject they expect to teach. The writer seems to favor a fifth year to include professional work. She quotes the opinion of members of the Association of Colleges and University of the State of New York who unofficially voted at a recent meeting as being overwhelmingly in favor of the "fifth year."

Another difficulty is the growing tendency to prescribe very definite subjects and numbers of points or credits covering a large part of the four-year course. Furthermore, the special requirements of the various states causes confusion and makes it impossible for institutions with students from many states to offer a curriculum that can begin to meet these requirements. The results will be to drive away from the public school teaching field the best candidates. Another question discussed is the fact that state requirements seem to demand only exposure to so many hours whereas the present approved educational practice is toward concentration and achievement.

"Insured Loans for Schools," *School and Society*, Vol. 44, No. 1142 (November 14, 1936, p. 637).

A report on the facilities of the Federal Housing Administration whereby smaller schools and colleges may obtain insured credit from private financial institutions under the Organizations Modernization Credit Plan. From 1934 until June 30, 1936, 454 institutions have made use of this plan for modernization, repair and equipment.

"Commencement Customs and Traditions," Ruth E. Anderson, *Bulletin of the Association of American Colleges* (November 1936, pp. 456-481).

In response to requests for information on Commencement etiquette, the Association office has gathered and compiled material which is included in the article. The Commencement exercises are outlined in considerable detail for Columbia University, Lawrence College, University of North Carolina, University of Chicago, Harvard University, Brown University, University of Rochester, Indiana University, and Bennington College. There is also included a section on customs and traditions in a number of institutions. Other information given deals with Academic Costume, Processions, Class Day events and unusual customs that are observed in colleges and universities.

The author concludes with a statement that a forthcoming issue of the Bulletin will contain material concerning convocations other than Commencement.

"The University of the United States," Carroll D. Champlin, *School and Society*, Vol. 44, No. 1136 (October 3, 1936, p. 435).

Those who are interested in the material available on this subject will find that a considerable amount of reference material is included in this article together with the writer's comments on the feasibility of such an institution.

"An Outline of a Personnel Program for the Small College," A. J. Brumbaugh, *The North Central Association Quarterly*, Vol. XI, No. 1 (July 1936).

The author takes a hypothetical institution of 500 students or less and outlines his views on the type of personnel program that might be followed. This plan begins while the student is still in high school and involves admissions, registration, and course assignments. The program of guidance through the college course is outlined and a practical administration organization is presented. Some conclusions are: 1. That all faculty members shall be encouraged to assume responsibility for guidance through the situations that arise as a result of the confidence their students repose in them; 2. The special counselors shall be a few well-qualified faculty members; 3. That the services of experts in certain fields shall be available to the faculty counselors and; 4. All records shall be centralized and the offices of the personnel staff be so arranged as to provide easy exchange of information.

"Do Junior College Students Know Where They Are Going?" Walter Crosby Eells, *Educational Record*, Vol. 17, No. 4 (October 1936, pp. 571-576).

A review of two studies of junior college students in California to determine what plans they had for further study after leaving the junior institutions. The study is based on nearly 7,000 students in one case and nearly 10,000 in the other. Statistics are included to indicate the early plans of these students as compared with the final realization. Four conclusions are listed: 1. The Junior College is a terminal institution for a large proportion of the student body; 2. More attention should be given to devising, perfecting and popularizing suitable terminal curricula; 3. The study should be presented to the students for the purpose of guidance; 4. Higher educational institutions should consider the desirability of some relaxation in the rigidity in their entrance requirements for junior college graduates.

"The Confusion in Higher Education" and "What Is A General Education?" Robert Maynard Hutchins, *Harpers Magazine*, Vol. 173 (October 1936, pp. 449-450, and November 1936, pp. 602-609).

These two interesting articles give the author's opinions on the causes and remedies for what he terms confusion in higher education. The first article

deals with the causes of the confusion which begins in high school and continues through the university. Among the causes for this confusion are those traceable to "love of money." The need for funds which come from students, donors and legislatures affects the policies of institutions and creates a variety of objectives. In this connection, he discusses such questions as the service conception of schools, teaching fellowships, athletics, social life, system of measurements and faculty attitudes. He states that the confusion is also caused by the idea of democracy which affects the length, content and control of education. In the writer's opinion, general public education should be set at about the end of the sophomore year in college and he gives his arguments for the junior college. Free education above this level should be open to those who have demonstrated their ability to profit by it.

In his second article, the author presents his views on what the content of such a general education should be. He suggests that the curriculum should be composed principally of the permanent studies and pleads for the study of the classics. The course should also contain grammar, rhetoric, logic, public speaking and mathematics and he presents his arguments for the inclusion of this material in his proposed curriculum. The obstacles to be overcome in convincing the public, the student and the teaching profession are outlined.

"The Relation of High-School Mathematics to College Marks and of Other Factors to College Marks in Mathematics," Harl R. Douglass and Jessie H. Michaelson, *The School Review*, Vol. XLIV, No. 8 (October 1936, pp. 615-619).

A study of 387 students of the class of 1930 in the College of Arts and Science and the School of Business Administration at the University of Oregon. The object of the study was to obtain data on the relation between amount and quality of training in high-school mathematics and subsequent grades in academic subjects and (2) to determine if high-school grades furnished a means of predicting individual achievement in college mathematics. The conclusions reached were: 1. Beyond the first two years, high-school mathematics does not contribute materially to the success in the subjects taken in the first two years of college; 2. Ability in high-school mathematics is materially, though not closely associated with ability to do work in any field in the liberal arts college, yet not so closely correlated as is the average high-school mark in all subjects; 3. Prediction of success cannot be made with any high degree of accuracy. The best prediction is secured from the average high school mark in all subjects; 4. The coefficients indicate that success in a given subject field involving only a part of the student's work cannot be predicted with as much accuracy as can success in all college subjects; 5. The findings are directly in line with those reported by Odell for students at the University of Illinois.

CALENDAR OF COMING EDUCATIONAL EVENTS

January	14-15, 1937	Association of American Colleges, Washington, D. C.
January	18, 1937	National Committee on Education by Radio, New York City.
February	5- 6, 1937	Association of Virginia Colleges.
February	16-19, 1937	National Vocational Guidance Association Convention, New Orleans, Louisiana.
February	20-25, 1937	67th Annual Convention, National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, Municipal Auditorium, New Orleans, Louisiana.
February	25-27, 1937	National Progressive Educational Association, St. Louis, Missouri.
February	26-27, 1937	American Association of Junior Colleges, Dallas, Texas.
February	27, 1937	National Advisory Council on School Building Problems, New Orleans, Louisiana.
March	1937	State Teachers Association, Columbia, South Carolina.
March	15-18, 1937	American Association of University Women, Savannah, Georgia.
April	1937	Kentucky Education Association, Louisville, Kentucky.
April	1937	Northwest Association of Secondary Schools and Higher Institutions, Spokane, Washington.
April	13-15, 1937	American Association of Collegiate Registrars, Kansas City, Kansas.
April	7-10, 1937	North Central Association, Stevens Hotel, Chicago, Illinois.

All corrections and additions to the above calendar should be reported to the Regional Editor, Enoch C. Dyrness, Wheaton College, Wheaton, Illinois. Such information should be sent in as far in advance as possible.

FRONTISPIECE

The Cathedral of Learning of the University of Pittsburgh is a distinct departure from the traditional college building. Rising to a height of 535 feet, comprising 41 stories, it is the tallest school building in the world. It contains 91 classrooms, 67 laboratories, 52 graduate research laboratories, 13 lecture rooms, 15 large departmental studies, 78 offices, a student foyer, and several faculty and student assembly rooms. On the main floor are memorial rooms contributed by the various nationality groups in Pittsburgh—English, Scotch, German, Norwegian, Swedish, Italian, Czechoslovak, Yugoslav, Polish, Hungarian, Rumanian, Chinese, Greek, and Russian. The architectural plan of the Cathedral promises to satisfy the dream of the Chancellor when he said: "The structure is to be like a great symphony. Forceful, unafraid, sublime with a sense of upwardness, it will start our accustomed limits of thought and life to move farther away. The immeasurable quantity of its lift, buttress after buttress rising but never arriving in a spire, will suggest force enough to go still beyond themselves, make us apprehend that the power to create and achieve is the source of the value of education and of life. The plan is a building which shall be a fitting and central symbol of the topmost, high-motivated energy and reverence in Pittsburgh."

The University of Pittsburgh will celebrate the one hundred and fiftieth anniversary of its founding on February 25. On that day thousands of alumni will assemble for their activities in and around the world's tallest school building.

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